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# School Board Journal

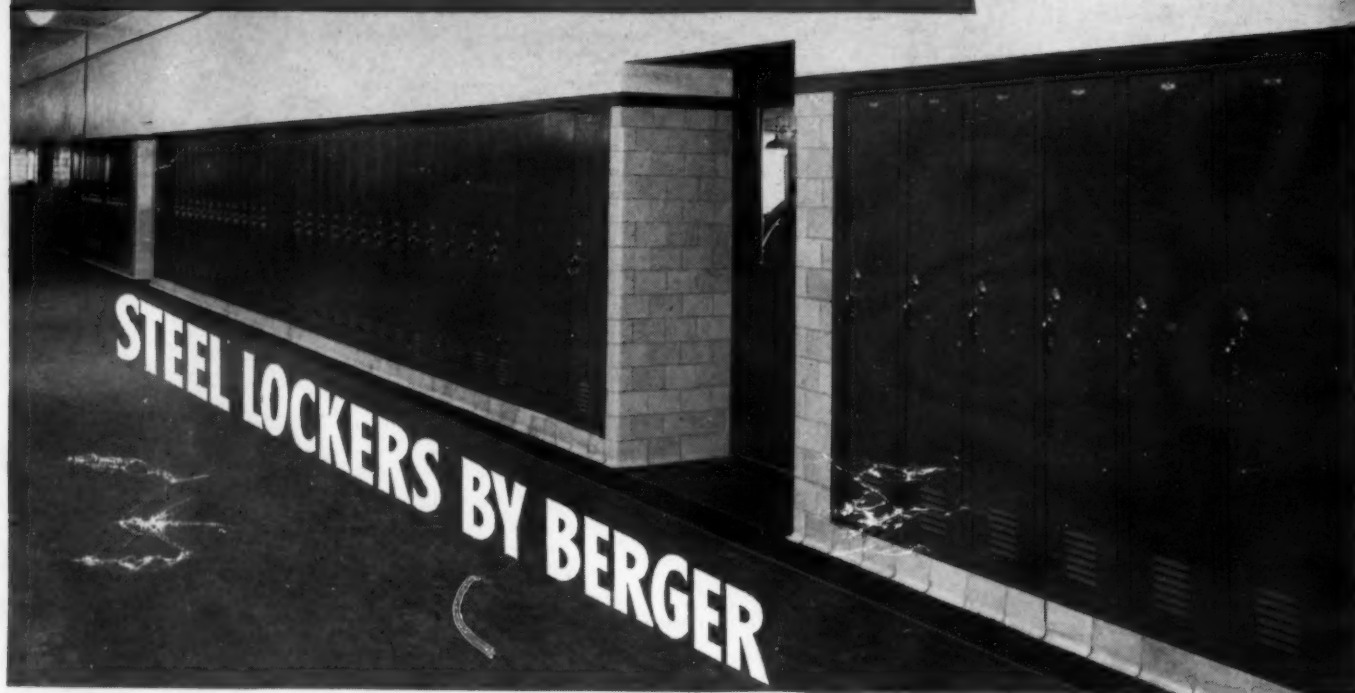
A PERIODICAL OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION



VOLUME 111, NUMBER 2

AUGUST, 1945

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VOL. 111  
NO. 2

# THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

AUGUST,  
1945

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## Before School Opens

Getting only the most essential requirements for 1945-46 school operations is more difficult than at any time since war started. Limitation orders have been lifted on a number of critical materials, and eased on many other products. While this facilitates the placing of orders, acute shortages of material and labor for peacetime production continues. For this reason orders for much school equipment and supplies cannot be accepted, or if accepted, with delivery dates in the uncertain future. Even on products which are available, delivery will be slower than ever because of labor and transportation conditions.

Confronted with this critical situation, many schools will open in September without adequate equipment and supplies. Shortage of teaching personnel is the outstanding problem of the 1945-46 school year. And with shortages in operating materials, school administrators are faced with a serious predicament in "making ends meet" at the beginning of this, the fourth school war year.

Increase in elementary school enrollment is forecast for September school opening based on the birth rate increases at the turn of the decade. Population shifts and relocation are already taking place and will bring complications in some areas. Use of school facilities for community and war services continues and will even increase during the coming year.

All this adds up to a "big job to be done" from now until school opens in September. Under these conditions it is well to maintain a very close contact with your reliable sources of supply. Prolong the use of all your equipment as long as possible through careful maintenance and repair work. Temporarily substitute available materials wherever possible. Check and double check all sanitary and safety facilities to avoid any hazard to the health and safety of pupils.

The school equipment and supplies industry, concentrating on school service, offers the best help in solving your school housekeeping problem. The Guide to Products and Services in this issue serves as the most convenient means of obtaining these specialized services. Refer to the advertising in the AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL and then make use of the inquiry form on page 71.

JOHN J. KRILL

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The contents of this issue are listed in the "Education Index."

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# THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

Volume 111, No. 2

AUGUST, 1945

Subscription, \$3.00 the Year



FOUR POSTWAR ASSIGNMENTS

## That Home-Economics Teacher —

# SHE IS DIFFERENT

George A. Smith<sup>1</sup>

High school principals frequently assert that they find the home-economics teacher the unusual and outstanding member of the high school faculty. They say she is different. She is the best groomed, most gracious person in the school. Everybody is her friend. She has that rare faculty of being able to say and to do the right thing at the right time. In short, she has a charming teacher personality.

It is fortunate that home-economics teachers are well prepared for their work. In many schools the home-economics department is new, and the teacher must begin her work by selling herself and her program to the community. Often this difficult beginning requires a lot of persuasion coupled with an abundance of charm.

The following story of the development of a home-economics department will attest to the enterprising and engaging qualities of home-economics teachers in general.

Down in the basement in a far corner of a high school building, some years ago, a home-economics teacher, just out of college, started a new department. The room assigned for the department was a dark and cobwebby place filled with broken desks, chairs, and pieces of castoff lumber. No one had been accustomed to entering the place except the janitor when he wished to dispose of another broken piece of furniture. The new teacher accepted the room graciously, and in no time at all, the room had been cleaned up and a home-economics department was in the making. By the end of the first year the room had taken on a very attractive appearance through the addition of wall decorations, window curtains, and a few pieces of well-selected second-hand furniture.

Classes were organized to include girls from the seventh grade through the twelfth. The new department was off to a good start. The teacher had sold herself to her students and to her community.

A lot of little things contributed to her success. She remembered her girls on special days. A note of sympathy was sent to a bereaved home; a letter of congratulation was mailed to a graduate who was achieving success. She attended church in the community. She gave several short addresses to women's clubs during the year. She always made it a point to become acquainted with the parents of the girls in her department. Periodical afternoon teas were delightful occasions. Mothers were invited. Friends, faculty members, and student groups looked forward to "tea days."

At all times and at all places the home-

<sup>1</sup>Quarryville, Pa.

economics teacher was sure to be looked upon as well groomed, and a gracious lady in the group. She never failed to model her "shop." She always knew the right words to fit every personality she contacted. She never talked much about herself, but was always sincere and generous in dealing with others. She was the best known and best loved teacher in the community.

One of the big events of each school year that did much to cement home and school relationship, was the annual home-economics fashion show. This event always attracted a large audience to the high school auditorium. At this show the girls modeled the clothes that had been made in the department during the year. Items included everything from children's sun suits to evening gowns. Each girl was given an opportunity to model her own prized creation. Shy country lasses were encouraged to include their little sisters in the fashion pa-

rade, especially if a little sister's dress had been made in the department. An occasional boy was even brought into the show to add variety, some fun, or a bit of romance. The entire fashion program was usually woven around a simple plot developed to interest everyone in the audience.

Through these varied personal contacts with the people of the community, the home-economics teacher wielded a powerful influence as a good will agent of the school. The community became acquainted with its school and was willing to finance its improvements when called upon to do so.

From a humble beginning in a dingy basement room a few years ago, that same home-economics department is now working in a modern home-economics practice house located on the high school campus. The building has a modern unit kitchen, a sewing room, a fitting room, and a general recitation room. This practice house has all the convenience and attractiveness found in a modern middle-class American home.

Is it any wonder that everyone who has met the home-economics teacher has been charmed by her personality, her grooming, her sincerity, and her kind words of greeting? Is it any wonder the principal thinks she is different?

## Desperate Remedies for Physical Education

An Open Letter to Superintendent John J. Young

Frederick Rand Rogers\*

Sir: This is a reply to your forthright challenge (in the May issue, the JOURNAL) concerning my use<sup>1</sup> of certain army draft statistics to indicate the failure of American public schools properly to conserve their pupils' health.

Permit me, Sir, to applaud your penetrating analysis, which adduces evidence from your own and neighboring schools indicating that draft statistics may not be valid for American high schools. I agree: Army induction health statistics have been too much bruited about; and you have called a halt to an impropriety.

You also termed my December article a "bitter attack." I had not meant it so. My aim, rather, was to stir school administrators to realize that their communities are being short changed, to the detriment of their pupils'—and the nation's—physical fitness for study, learning, work, play, service to selves or others in order to put them on the track of an adequate remedy. I seem to have failed in this effort, at least with you.

To return to your article, which stated that your great aim is "the welfare of the schools and children of America." Well, mine is to help accomplish this aim more effectively than perhaps is now the case in your school. You did aver that physical education probably does "the poorest work of all departments in public education."

Since you questioned the army data as inconclusive, let me present facts concerning school children, which prove inefficiency somewhere, in

perhaps the most efficiently managed and certainly one of the costliest public school systems in the United States. I refer to the report of a 1933 survey of school health practices, conducted by the American Child Health Association, in New York City. This report<sup>2</sup> revealed that New York City school-health services averaged about 5 per cent efficiency in endeavors to discover and continue to follow-up (not to correct—just to continue to try to correct) such common, easily determined and vital defects as those of vision, hearing, teeth, throats, nutrition.

A more recent criticism is that by Katherine Lenroot, chief of the U. S. Children's Bureau, in a December 10, 1944, press release:

- a) Ten million boys and girls under 21 have defective vision.
- b) Two million have impaired hearing, 17,000 of them are deaf.
- c) Close to one million have congenital syphilis.
- d) A half million have orthopedic or spastic conditions.
- e) Four hundred thousand have tuberculosis.
- f) Nearly three fourths of all school children have dental defects.

Miss Lenroot concluded: "Shocking as conditions are, they are perhaps better than we have a right to expect, considering the year-by-year nationwide neglect of the health of children."

"But," you may retort, "these criticisms chiefly concern elementary grades—I am interested in

(Concluded on page 64)

\*Cupertino, Calif.

<sup>1</sup>In the article "The Amazing Failure of Physical Education" in the December, 1944, issue of THE AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL.

<sup>2</sup>Physical Defects: The Pathway to Correction, 1934, American Child Health Association, New York.



# The Identity and Function of Administration in Public Service

John A. Sexson<sup>1</sup>

Echoes of the antagonisms that have arisen between employers and employees in private business and industry are occasionally heard in professional groups, particularly among public school teachers. Incipient efforts are made to convince public employees that they have a common cause with those privately employed, and that organizations and procedures usable in private employment are desirable and usable in public service. One sees occasional efforts to identify positions in public service as counterparts of positions in private employment, and to identify individuals in public service as "bosses," "foremen," "managers," "clerks," etc. These are efforts to carry into the public-service ranks the antagonisms characteristic of some private organizations and to establish lines of cleavage, disparity of status, and conflict of interests. Diagrams employed in illustrating relationships in private organizations have been appropriated *in toto* to illustrate relationships in public service, such as the line-staff form of organization, and others.

The movement seems to have passed its height. However, there are still some individuals who profess to believe that there is a fair analogy between public service and private employment, but most thoughtful persons are coming to the conviction that public interest demands a forthright approach to the whole problem and that intelligent study of the problem should be substituted for carping criticism and mutual recrimination. They are not convinced that the effective discharge of the duties and responsibilities of public service is to be best effected by appropriating thereto the ideologies developed in the "dog-eat-dog" competition of private business. They are, therefore, urging an examination of facts, a study of problems, a definition of relationships, and the application of reasoned intelligence to policies, organization, and procedure.

## Public Employer Unlike Private Employer

To put it baldly, Is there factual foundation for a contention that the relationships properly existing between persons engaged in public service are directly comparable to those existing between persons privately employed? Is a municipality, a county, a state or the federal government an *employer* in the same sense as a proprietor, a company, or a corporation? Do persons in public service in fact hold posi-

tions that are the equivalent of those of manager, foreman, bosses, laborers, clerks, etc., privately employed? The writer desires to register at the outset a positive opinion that the answer to all the above questions is an emphatic *No!* Moreover, he believes that the application of this concept and the imitation by persons in public service of the attitudes and procedures prevalent in private employment are contrary to the public interest and constitute a menace to the stability, the workability, and the effectiveness of democratic institutions of government.

This does not constitute a criticism of labor organizations or the activities of organized labor. With these, the writer is in hearty sympathy. Organized labor has made a valiant and commendable effort on behalf of improved conditions of employment. Private employers, too, have made worthy efforts to improve the status and welfare of employees. The two groups in co-operation have made outstanding advances of a most desirable kind. The writer does not oppose organization of public-service employees, nor does he find any fault with them for bargaining for needed improvements in working hours and conditions and for equitable pay. He does insist that their needs are properly determined by the nature of the public services rendered and by the conditions appertaining thereto, and not by analogies between their positions and jobs in factories or in offices.

These concepts deserve thoughtful attention just now. The unprecedented increase in the number of persons employed in public service in recent years brings the issue into sharp focus. The danger that increasing numbers of persons publicly employed will lose sight of the public interest in their concern for their personal welfare is real. For a too large percentage of our population to come to feel that the government must employ them under conditions of their own choosing, must pay wages of their own determining, and must accept services on the basis of personal conscience or convenience is obviously a menace and is in fact a re-enactment of the "spoils system" in a new and most insidious form.

## Is Superintendent the "Boss"?

There is no obligation on the part of an individual to enter public service except from a sense of duty to one's country and a sincere desire to render a public service. In theory, our free-enterprise system maintains an economy under which one may, as

a proprietor or as an employee, earn one's livelihood. Here is the area of employer-employee relationships where the rules of the game are formulated by the processes of collective bargaining and the other techniques characteristic of employer-employee organizations.

Applied to public education, and particularly to teachers and to persons employed in public education, this questions the propriety of referring to the superintendent, the principal or the teacher, as defined by "boss." The superintendent does not employ teachers or determine the conditions of their employment. The superintendent is himself an employee. His status, as in the case of the principal or the teacher, is defined by the State Education Code and by action of the board of education. Teachers do not work *for* him; they work *with* him. He does not define his own status or decide upon his own duties and responsibilities. These are assigned as are the duties and responsibilities of all other employees. Nowhere in the law or in school-board rules is the superintendent designated as "*THE*" administration nor is he in fact "*THE*" administration. He has administrative duties and responsibilities as do practically all persons employed in public service. He may be designated by the local board as the "Chief" administrative officer, but even then he is not the *only* administrative officer. He shares administrative duties and responsibilities with innumerable persons within and without the district.

The division of duties in public education has developed historically out of experience and represents what wise statesmen and legislators, as well as professional educators, have deemed to be the best organization from the standpoint of efficient educational service. If this organization is faulty, the remedy does not lie in criticism of individuals who are conscientiously performing their legally determined duties. The law leaves these individuals no discretion. They must accept their assigned responsibilities or be held in legal default under severe penalties.

## Broad Responsibility of "Administrator"

In American jurisprudence, "administration" has a particular and peculiar connotation. It is not synonymous with "manager," "director," "governor," "executor," "commissioner," or "supervisor," terms common to many governmental enterprises. You do not refer to the person responsible for administrative functions as a "school

<sup>1</sup>Superintendent of Schools, Pasadena, Calif.

manager," however appropriate it would be to refer to a similar person in a municipality as a "city manager." A "manager" is concerned primarily with economy, frugality, efficiency, and effective routine. The duties of a "supervisor" are, by implication, inspectorial. The authority of the "commissioner" is, by the very nature of the term, limited by the title. He possesses a commission which is manifestly specific and definitive.

The "administrator" is a unique person in that the title implies that there are two major responsibilities involved: one has to do with the direction or operation of the enterprise; the other has to do with the improvement or fostering of the project. Both our Constitution and our Education Code, in using this term, convey with the title heavy responsibilities and broad authority. More than this, the practice generally is to avoid definitive limitations and effect wide distribution of responsibilities and duties.

If you will read the Education Code, you will find that nowhere does it set up or describe an officeholder as "*THE*" administrator. What it does is to make a wide dispersal of administrative functions. It says in effect that every employee of a public school system, since the system is designed to render professional service, must possess professional qualifications, and that each employee is definitely an administrator because, first of all, he must do certain things which he is directed to do by the Constitution and the Code; and, in the second place, he has a definite responsibility to society to improve the educational service. It is this extra requirement in school administration that distinguishes this service from executive functions or managerial functions, and which tends to disperse the function widely throughout the organization.

A moment's reflection will call to your mind the fact that the state superintendent of public instruction and all the employees in his office, the state board of education and all its employees and agencies, the county board of education, the county superintendent of schools and his staff, the local district board of education and its employees—all these exercise administrative authority and are charged with administrative responsibilities in both the Constitution and the Education Code.

#### Who Constitute the School Administration?

The superintendent of schools may be the "chief" executive officer of the board of education, but if he is, it is by the action of the local board of education. He may be, and is, with respect to certain functions, the administrative officer of the board, but he is not the only administrative officer of the board. Associated with him are the principal with his administrative duties, certain members of the staff with their administrative duties, the teacher with his administrative duties, and others. In fact, each

and every employee, at some point, has either executive or advisory duties, and often both. The administration is, by law, all the employees of the system. Every teacher is specifically an executive and an administrator by legal requirement and under penalty for faithful performance.

A chart to clarify these administrative relationships would show the school system as interposed between two units of the electorate. On the one side would be society at large, the state electorate, the Constitution, and the Code; on the other would be the local electorate, the board of education with its local rules and regulations. The executive power flows along a clear-cut line between these two units and relates to the carrying out of the mandates of the people. It objectifies best of all the carrying out of the law and places the responsibility for making the law effective. With respect to this thoroughly and necessarily democratic function, the persons in the school administration are responsible not to each other but to the sovereign state which, after all, has little concern whether the relationships between the individuals involved are pleasant or unpleasant. Primarily, the state wants its schools efficiently conducted, and the laws appertaining thereto carried out, and it does not give choices to teachers, to administrators, or to other employees.

With the mandate to carry out the law, there comes an equally forceful directive to improve the services. Provision is, therefore, made that the pupil, the teacher, the principal, the superintendent shall continuously convey to the local board of education, to the state board of education, to the legislature, and to the electorate plans, ideas, directions, and guidance essential, not only for producing an efficient school system, but continuously to improve the educational services rendered as the needs of the individual and of society demand. Therefore, every station on the administrative line has both a transmitter and a receiver. It is a two-way street with the authority and responsibility flowing in one direction and professional advice and service flowing in the other. Along with every executive obligation to render a service, there is an equal administrative obligation to the service.

The effort to establish lines of cleavage between those engaged in public service is subversive in that it will inevitably weaken, if not destroy, the effectiveness of public-service agencies. Any effort made should be made in the interest of harmony, unity, and co-operation. If existing relations are unsatisfactory, they should be readjusted by mutual co-operation. This is a moral, as well as a professional obligation to one's society, to one's government, to oneself. Any other procedure tends to weaken and destroy the structure.

#### The Superintendent As a Teacher

The public school system of California, and of America, is basically democratic. It

is the flower of the democratic way in that it provides for the practical realization of the democratic ideal; namely, opportunity; security; respect for human character, human worth, and human achievement. In this public school system, the administrator is a teacher and the teacher is an administrator. They are jointly vested with the responsibility for providing adequate educational services. These services are obviously both teaching services and administrative services. If education is to go forward, there must be not only teaching, but there must be conditions under which teaching can be done. Therefore, there is no "*THE*" administrator any more than there is "*THE*" teacher. There may be a "chief" administrative officer. Experience has demonstrated that there must be such an officer. There may be a "chief" teacher. Experience has shown that there must be such a teacher for every student and for every vital subject. The two functions are more often than not combined. The vast number of single individuals selected on the basis of their competency and employed because of their serviceableness are mutually obligated to support each other in all the essential and necessary educational services.

What do you mean by "*THE*" administration? You will have to get yourself a looking glass in order to answer. If you honestly fix responsibility for bad administrative practice, you must accept your share. Those who have advocated the separation of the two groups are being rapidly replaced by thoughtful persons who realize that there is no clear line of demarcation distinguishing one type of educational service from another, and that any attempt at separation or any practice that breaks down the line of intercommunication weakens the whole structure and impairs the educational service.

#### The Proudest Name: Teacher

Most administrators welcome the opportunity to belong to and to serve in teachers' organizations. They are teachers at heart. Only the less discerning attempt to dominate teachers' organizations, misuse them, or exploit them. I should estimate that 80 per cent of that part of administrative time that is devoted to management is devoted to efforts to improve teacher status, teacher welfare, and teacher well-being. Eighty per cent of the total budget is paid out for salaries. Administration serves as a foundation for organized public education; it safeguards and protects the teaching function; it applies public effort and public support to the service of teaching; and it is best performed when those charged with responsibility therefor are trained, experienced, and mature teachers.

Having at one time or another served in both capacities, I find it exceedingly difficult to distinguish between administration of the best kind and teaching of the best kind. The spirit, the process, the method,

(Concluded on page 64)



# Work Experience Is a Proper Function of the High School *Charles L. Morrill*

A number of years ago schools, parents, and governmental agencies were vitally concerned because young people by the thousands could not get jobs. At that time it was difficult to encourage young people to become interested in the long-range individual development side of work.

In those years of economic depression youth met discouragement on every side. For many of these youths the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration provided jobs and a brief amount of training. School administrators began talking of an extra year or two of schooling. The youth-work problem was acute.

Today the war has brought many of the present inadequacies of the modern American school into sharp focus, and one of our most promising practices which scarcely had been started before the war—that of providing youth with work under the direction of the schools so that their energies will fit in well with the war effort—has been given a challenge. Some schoolmen are calling this practice a developmental work-experience program.

Recently the writer had the opportunity of serving on a work experience committee, composed of teachers, to study the work problem on the high school level in a typical midwest community. Its place in the curriculum, the question of how it might be handled, and constructive suggestions that must be considered in launching a work program comprised the high lights of the committee's study.

For work experience to be a proper function of the secondary schools in the average city, the following developmental steps deserve judicious attention:

## Gradual Introduction Advisable

*The work experience program must be a gradual procedure.* The individual school should be given the responsibility and freedom to launch its work-experience program in whatever manner best suits local pupil and community characteristics. There are no established plans, whether national, state, or local, which a school can safely follow in this important unexplored area. Work-experience is only now coming to be recognized as of substantial educational worth. Educators are endeavoring to administer work-experiences in such a manner as to make them of greatest total use to young workers. So it is evident that schools must chart their course gradually.

*The school must encourage more work services.* In the writer's recent survey

<sup>1</sup>Head of Business Department, Elgin High School, Elgin, Ill.



Learning to Sell by Selling in a leading Department Store.

experience 64.3 per cent of the students were working; and if the questionnaire had been worked to include community "work service," the number of students involved would have reached approximately 75 per cent of the high school enrollment.

The work-experiences known as work-services open areas that are rich in opportunities for pupil participation in the life

of the community. American life is calling more and more for people to give gratuitously of their time and effort. Community activities such as Red Cross, welfare work, Community Chest and Bond drives, day nurseries, books for servicemen, and countless others offer many chances for high school students to have learning experience.

Educational authorities are quite right when they say that there is an urgent need for the stated kinds of work-experience known as work-services, which help to coordinate a school and its community and which are conducive to improved public relations to an extent greater than most schools now dream of.

## Employment Co-operation

*School and employment agencies must work together.* Ties with the schools and public and private employment agencies which are already established must be made stronger if a work-experience program is to work successfully. The school itself cannot assume all the duties of these agencies for getting jobs and workers together. Certainly, the school can and must work with these agencies, supplementing them by giving more complete information about students, searching out those students who can and will do certain kinds of work, collecting in-



A Student Photographer helps in a Commercial Studio.



A Machine-Shop supplements School-Shop Instruction.



The Drafting Student applies his school instruction under the direction of his employer who explains the special adaptation of general principles and techniques to the job in hand.

formation about students' work-experiences, and doing some of the sifting of information in the light of our greater knowledge of the students.

This co-operation with the already established agencies should make possible more satisfactory placing of students under a work-experience program.

*The school must establish policies on part-time work-experience.* The following procedure is being followed at the Elgin High School for students who have a work-experience during school hours.

At the present time about 20 per cent of our employed students are being excused to work during school hours.

Whenever a student receives an opportunity for part-time work-experience during school hours, he must make a request for such work through the adjustment director's office, where a work-experience form is made out in duplicate. The work assignment will be checked periodically by a visiting teacher of the adjustment office. The findings are filed away in the student's personal folder for future references.

#### Needed Basic Policies

*Hours and night work.* Part-time employment is limited to hours which the student can carry in addition to his school program without detriment to his health or interference with progress in school.

*For students 16 and 17 years of age.* (1) Daily hours of employment are limited to hours which the student can carry in addition to his school program without detriment to his health. Hours must not exceed four on school days nor eight on days when school is not in session.

(2) Weekly hours of employment should not exceed 28 hours during weeks when school is in session nor 48 in weeks when schools are closed.

(3) Evening employment must not ex-

tend beyond 10 p.m., and students must be allowed at least nine consecutive hours free from employment.

*For students 14 and 15 years of age.* (1) Daily hours of employment may not exceed three on school days nor eight on days when school is not in session.

(2) No employment can be permitted after 7 p.m. nor before 7 a.m.

*Day of rest.* One day of rest in seven must be allowed free from employment.

*Age certificates.* Students are not employed without an employment or age certificate. There are two certificates, one for students under 16 years of age and one for students over 16 years of age.

These certificate forms are on file in the superintendent's office and may be picked up by the student.

#### Work-School Credit

*The school must give credit for work-experience.* For the success of a work-experience program it is necessary for the school to give credit toward graduation for stated kinds of work-service and experience, to be weighted about the same as academic subjects.

It would be difficult to state how much credit should be given for stated kinds of work; however, the mechanics of the credit procedure can be handled best by the different departments in the school. In view of the fact that all experiences vary considerably with each department, it seems logical that the departments can best work out their individual grading systems. For illustrative purposes, a business department may give one credit during a semester for work-experience in the field. There should be as much uniformity as possible throughout an entire school system on credit and grading procedure for work-experience and services.

The policy of admitting to college high

school pupils for work-experience is generally recognized throughout the nation.

At a joint meeting of the committee on admissions from Secondary Schools and the Superintendent of Public Instruction held in Springfield, Ill., January 18, 1943, the following action was taken with reference to the policy of allowing credit for work experience: "Credit for work-experience is not acceptable toward graduation from a recognized and accredited high school or toward admission to the University of Illinois unless such work experience is a part of a high school course and is under the supervision and control of the high school."

#### Information Advisable

*The community and the school must be informed.* Because our schools are controlled almost entirely locally, it is necessary, when new educational ideas come along, to convince the communities of their soundness.

Usually no one in the community has taken the initiative to point out to the school and the community the desirability of work-experience as part of the education of youth.

In the school, many teachers and students alike are not well informed concerning the work program. Probably the school faculty as a whole should accept the responsibility for educating its students and community in the work idea. However, it should be primarily the definite duty of the work supervisors.

In view of the fact that students are also part of the public which needs to be informed about the work program, it is necessary to show students what the program can do. This can be done in a number of ways:

1. *Student publications.* Editorials in the school paper, pictures and news articles on work.



2. Home-room discussions and individual conferences.

3. *School assemblies.* Through this agency students can receive general information on the program by the presentation of an interesting skit.

4. *Display cases, bulletin boards, daily bulletins.* The qualifications for work on the work program can be posted for ready reference by students. The accomplishments of the program can be dramatized by using illustrative materials about some outstanding job which has been done.

5. *Motion pictures.* If the school is fortunate enough to have a visual education department, a work-experience picture may be produced which is helpful to show types of recognition among the working group in the school.

Contacts with the local civic organizations, the school superintendent, and the school board offer opportunities for developing an understanding of the work-experience program.

Work supervisors should see that the above agencies are kept well informed on the program. This can be done by using graphic illustrations on work projects accomplished, showing of a work-experience motion picture, local work bulletins, talks, displays in store windows, and school publicity which is within the policies of the school.

Howard Y. McClusky, associate director of the American Youth Commission, says, "In order to avoid another educational band wagon on which enthusiastic pedagogues will indiscriminately climb, stress should

be placed on the fact that no spiritual alchemy will transform a person as a result of mere work-experience. Like other good things it too can easily degenerate into puttering, busy work without meaning to the worker or society. To attain the full value of work-experience, careful planning, constant evaluation and adjustment of personal and social goals will be required."

While the work-experience idea is still far from its educational maturity, it is old enough to merit constructive and systematic attention. It would not be extreme to say that experience in working at personally and socially significant activities will be increasingly identified as a necessity for the maturation of the individual and the health of society.

## Once More the Question of Intelligence Tests

Robert D. Baldwin<sup>1</sup>

I have just come from the oral examination of a candidate for the M.A. degree, in the course of which one examiner asked the question, "As matters now stand with respect to the employment of the results of intelligence tests in public schools, if you had the final say whether they are to continue to be given, what would you decide? I'd like for your answer to be Yes or No." The candidate was disturbed, indicating forthwith her reluctance to answer the question thus categorically. The examiner, however, stressing still more pointedly the use now generally made of the results of these tests, insisted on the Yes or No answer. Thereupon the candidate, who happens to be a superior teacher with wide experience in both elementary and secondary schools, stated that she would favor discontinuing them. Challenged on her position, she gave as her reason that in such a large proportion of the cases where such tests had been given, their results had been used primarily for classifying and stigmatizing, even for deciding, before teaching effort had been applied to instruction, who were the promising candidates that were therefore worth spending time upon and who were "hopeless" cases of whose progress they might then and there wash their hands.

Assuredly matters have arrived at a wondrously unprofessional—not to mention undemocratic—pass if the results of intelligence examinations are thus employed to deprive those, whose scores reveal the greatest need for guidance and skillful and patient instruction, of all but the most routine and casual teaching effort. It is as though a physician were to take a prospective patient's temperature, blood pressure, and pulse and find them 103, 180,

and 100 respectively, and then throw up his hands and exclaim, "Great Scott! I can't do anything for this man. He's abnormal in all these particulars. Away with him! Bring me patients who are normal or nearly so. I can do something with them!" Of course, a physician who would do this would be a medical absurdity. Isn't a teacher who uses the results of intelligence examinations as a means of selecting the more promising from the less promising for the purpose of neglecting to give full assistance to the latter equally absurd? What, pray, is the reason for such a pedagogical absurdity?

### Why the Wrong Use of Tests?

Perhaps one's first inclination is to heap abuse on the teacher—to suggest that teachers are as impractical as that, that teachers don't know much anyway, and that that's about what you'd expect from a teacher. When we consider the public's general estimate of a teacher's worth, judged by the remuneration to which the public

ordinarily believes a teacher to be entitled, such a reaction is not particularly surprising. But the explanation isn't quite so simple as that, for many teachers—the vast majority of them, I believe—would deprecate such a pedagogical absurdity quite as much as would anyone else.

The writer believes there are at least two reasons for thus erroneously employing the results of intelligence tests. The first would seem to be that, when the matter of these tests is considered in professional courses in educational psychology or tests and measurements, their functions, values, meanings, and purposes are less stressed than their techniques and mechanics. More attention is perhaps given to their construction, scoring, recording, and tabulation than to what they mean to the teacher as a help to him in making the most telling approach to the student or in diagnosing the difficulties which his case may present. It is as though, in medical school, the prospective physician were thoroughly drilled in the techniques of reading a thermometer, listening through the stethoscope to the throb of blood coursing by the elbow as he reads the pressure gauge, sensitizing the fingers to the pulse, and in the mechanics of recording all these on charts or cards; but were not disciplined to read the meanings which these observations and recordings might reveal as to what really ails the patient and what prescription is indicated as promising his ready recovery. Not that techniques and mechanics are unimportant. They are. But the best of techniques and mechanics are only means to an end. Ships serve only falteringly without carefully measured and technically adapted motive power and dependable rudder. But the most scientifically perfect specimen of both of these can drive the ship to foundry on the rocks or the bar, without the helms-



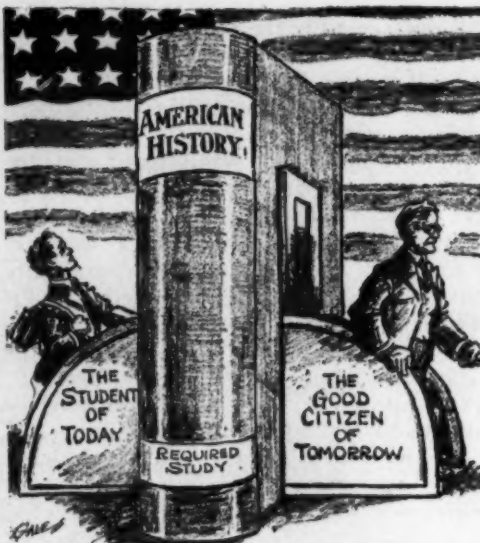
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man who knows for what *purposes* and toward what port he steers.

Of course, it is barely possible that, in the effort to get young high school graduates ready to teach in two years, teachers in normal schools and teachers' colleges do rush over the topic of intelligence examinations too hurriedly, not intentionally understressing their primary function and purpose as diagnosis, but actually stressing more the more concrete techniques and mechanics. Perhaps we even assume that students will recognize that techniques and mechanics aren't the whole story. Anyway, we should not. One thing we need to watch more carefully, throughout a teacher's preparation, is that his philosophy — his sense of direction, his scale of values, his set of purposes — is clear. One is tempted to recall in this connection Chesterton's insistence that it is *Everything* which matters, not *every thing*.

#### The Teaching Load as Cause

A second reason for faulty employment of the results of intelligence tests may be a combination of two not unrelated facts. The first is that the student load carried by the average teacher is too heavy to allow for that degree of attention to individuals which *diagnosis*, as the purpose to be served by intelligence examinations, as already proposed, insistently demands. The second is one which we all recognize as a rather natural human tendency — to choose, when there is not time to do *all* that ought to be done, those things which are more attractive. Thus with the normally heavy student loads to be carried and the consequent pressure upon their time, teachers often use the results of intelligence tests, perhaps even unconsciously, to pick out the more promising objects of their endeavors, so that at least, since they cannot do all they would like to do, some recognizable results may be achieved and exhibited. This is not intended as a defense of this choice.



Better teaching of history will make better citizens.

(Milwaukee Sentinel)

It may not be the wisest one. It is not meant even to excuse it. It does strive to account for it, and to nail it down as a fact to be faced frankly. Sometime — in the near future, we hope — when our people see the teacher in the school for what he really is, first and foremost a personnel serviceman, getting to know and working intimately with children as individuals of varying interests, capacities, and yearnings as well as inheritances and home and neighborhood environments, perhaps then we shall set before the teacher the not-too-impossible task of guiding fewer students much farther and more thoroughly.

#### How Improve Uses of Tests?

To summarize: It would be unfortunate to eliminate from schools the contributions which intelligence examinations may make to more adequate and effective teaching effort and achievement. These potential contributions to date have not materialized

for at least the reasons, among perhaps several others, herewith set forth. These reasons would seem to suggest the following steps to help assure fuller realization of the benefits to be derived from right use of intelligence tests:

1. Courses in which prospective teachers are acquainted with intelligence testing should emphasize over and over again by precept and practical application that these tests are to help us *diagnose*, to *understand* the pupil so that we can *teach him better*. They are not primarily to classify, to segregate, to label.

2. That the suggestion just made may have greater likelihood of being followed effectively, curriculums for the preparation of teachers for sound professional service should rapidly be advanced to full four-year degree status. Responsibilities such as a teacher must shoulder cannot be adequately prepared for, short of four years beyond high school.

3. Candidates for teaching should be increasingly recruited from high school graduates who are superior in personal poise and adjustment, mental grasp, physical health, and staying power, and genuine interest in their fellows. Needless to say, young people of such parts, in an economic society such as we subscribe to here in the United States, can command incomes in many lines which are adequate and attractive. Perhaps the public would like to provide such incomes for the devoted guides and counselors of their children, not for the sake of teachers, but because the best teachers obtainable are by no means too good for their children.

4. Student loads per teacher need to be reduced, not to ease the teacher's burden, but to enable him to carry it with maximum efficiency. Even in industry, when only *things* are the product of the enterprise, this is sound and accepted practice. When *human personalities* are in the making can its wisdom be questioned?

## Right Dress: Teaching Good Taste in Costuming Elizabeth Kardos<sup>1</sup>

American educators have long realized the future values of high school courses in civics and sociology for both boys and girls, but are just now waking up to the fact that clothes consciousness for a woman is as important as her vocational training and is in fact a part of it. The world, of course, judges both men and women at their face value until further acquaintance reveals the individual's inner worth.

In general, this is a man's world, and men in general just can't help favoring a personable woman. But even the woman executive, with a promotion to be filled, is

<sup>1</sup>Elizabeth Kardos is Director and Personality Consultant of the School of Costume Design, Inc., formerly the Darvas School of Fashion Arts, Cleveland.

likely to choose the person who displays good taste in dress and whose entire appearance is attractive. And a woman's charm depends to a great extent on her clothes. The young job seeker who has learned to enhance her natural attractiveness through well-selected clothes has a decided advantage over her competitors who have not.

Yet, all through those impressionable years when a girl is creating and building her personality, very little guidance or help is given her in self-expression through wardrobe planning by our schools; nor is there any understanding of her most prized possession — her inner self and its possibil-

ities for development and growth. A well-organized education program in wardrobe selection in relation to personality is needed.

Based on my experience in the fashion world, I would say that less than 1 per cent of American girl graduates would, if thrown upon their own resources, learn to dress as individuals, expressing their own personalities. The other 99 per cent would continue to follow fashions as laid down in newspaper and magazine ads, and Hollywood. That's all they have to turn to. They have received too little training in individual wardrobe planning.

The result is that fashions of American women are so standardized that they are



practically uniforms. Monotony is the curse of such mass dressing, for the costumes lack those individual touches that project a woman's personal charms. The woman in these circumstances suffers in two ways: outwardly, her personality is not effectively displayed to bring her a favorable reaction from others; inwardly, she is unsure, because her mirror tells her that she does not look her best.

#### A Start Has Been Made — Too Late?

Recognition of the need *has* brought about a step in the right direction in our schools. A national program is now under way in which personality and wardrobe planning is being stressed by home-economics departments. Credit for this pioneer work in personality success through costume training goes to those individual home-economic teachers who saw the values of such training for future success and personal happiness of the young girls in their classes.

The flaw in the program is that teachers as a whole are not trained to teach personality in relation to wardrobe planning. Furthermore, the program is offered at high school levels — too late in life for the teenage girl to learn to use it to full advantage. Already her habits of personality are to some extent crystallized. A brief high school course cannot convince her that training in clothes selection will play an important part in her life, if she takes advantage of it.

"But," you say, "how early in life should a girl be taught that her personality is the most valuable asset she will possess throughout life? How can our schools create this consciousness of wardrobe planning based on individual personality?"

We should begin this training in the primary grades. Habits learned immediately after the age of reason is reached will, if properly emphasized, remain throughout life. The actual educational program is a job for the schools; we should not leave it up to the parents.

Present-day orientation classes have ventured somewhat into this field, but what is still needed is a complete, all-round program embracing the possibilities of color for enhancement and contrast, the effect of various types of fabrics, the function of jewelry, the economic use of money in clothes buying for the coming season, and yes, in more advanced years, the proper application of make-up.

Such a course might be divided between the orientation and the art departments. Above all, the course must be practical.

Why do I emphasize the tremendous importance of this education for girls? I have seen too many American women in standardized costumes, because they lack confidence in their clothes judgment. That indicates a flaw in their education somewhere. And I see our teen-age girls obviously in need of guidance in this line, and I wonder what sort of women *they* will be.



Our teen-age girls are obviously in need of guidance in adapting their dress to their personality, of developing feminine charm and grace. (Photo, courtesy Pasadena City Schools)

#### Look at Today's Teen-Age Girl

So little has been done for the high school girl that in her bewilderment she turns to the crowd security of fads. We see the "gang" scuffling along in saddle shoes, plaid sox, and Sloppy Joe sweaters. Crowd approval actually demands that white shoes be soiled, if a girl wants to belong.

This deliberate lack of feminine charm in her clothes stems from the youthful desire to create a definite impression. It's too difficult to create a favorable one, for that requires careful selection of colors, fabrics, and styles, and the teen-age girl gets little help in such things from home or school. The whole class is in the same boat. The girl wears clothes which *do* create an impression — they are unfeminine, uncharming, undressy — but not unusual. No, it's the ensemble the crowd is wearing this spring. Her clothes identify her with the "gang," and this identification is more important to her self-confidence than identification with adult society.

Unfortunately, she cannot remain "in the groove" forever; eventually she will take her place in adult society — and what will she wear then?

She cannot easily break away from this mass psychology by herself. A comprehensive, practical course in wardrobe planning in relation to personality could well guide her toward a happy, poised, young womanhood.

Otherwise, lacking clothes education, she will depend on the sales clerk to select her adult costumes. It may take years before she discovers how to enhance her personal charms and shadow her physical defects through effective costume.

Some women never have learned. They continue to be handicapped by a lack of knowledge directly concerned with their social and vocational happiness. They are afraid of their own judgment in the matter of clothes, or possibly they only faintly realize that what they have chosen to wear is inappropriate for them.

Their unhappiness was unforeseen by the educational system on which they relied for training in how to face life — an educational system which up to now has paid scant heed to teaching the expression of personality through costume selection, a most important part of a woman's poise and happiness.

# The District Meeting in School Government

J. B. Sears

(Continued from the July issue)

## 5. Variety of Powers Exercised Through District Meeting

The district meeting is used differently in different states, its powers varying from scarcely more than that of advising the board on specified matters when asked by the board, or of electing a board, to that of legislating fully and finally on practically all matters provided for in the school law.

In Nevada the law provides among the powers and duties of the school trustees: "To call meeting of the heads of families of the school district in order to secure by vote the authority to procure or sell school-house sites, or to erect, purchase, sell, hire, or rent schoolhouses for the use of the district." All votes "shall be determined by ballot or by taking the 'ayes' and 'noes' as the meeting shall decide."<sup>18</sup> Later even this limited power of the district meeting was further curtailed by an act enabling trustees of the districts of the first class, county boards of education, and boards of trustees of high school districts to sell or lease real property belonging to the district.<sup>17</sup> That is, the self-government device, well enough suited for a neighborhood school, was found too cumbersome for a large territory. In Nevada the device of petitions by the people, with action by school trustees or county commissioners or county board of education, seems to have been found more practical than the device of school meetings or of formal elections for handling many matters that are handled through elections in many other states. When a petition requires more than half the signatures of all qualified voters, it is in its final effect the equivalent of an election or of a district meeting. It still provides for direct legislation, and so, is a form of self-government.

Other states in which the district meeting is a relatively minor feature of the system of school control include South Carolina, Colorado, Virginia, Illinois, and Nebraska. In these states the district or county school board is given fairly extensive governing powers and in most of them the school meeting is not so much an established self-operating unit of government, but is available upon call of the board, or it must be called if requested by petitioning voters. In Colorado the district meeting is available for use in third-class districts only and for

the purpose of effecting consolidation, to fix the school tax for the year, and deal with district property matters.<sup>19</sup> In Virginia it is the duty of the county board of education to call the people (of a subdistrict) in meeting "for consultation in regard to the school interests thereof when deemed necessary by the board."<sup>20</sup> In South Carolina the law empowers the district trustees "to call a meeting of the qualified electors for consultation in regard to the school interests thereof."<sup>20</sup> In Illinois the district meeting is available for use in districts of less than 1000 population only. At the meeting preceding the election a caucus is held and directors are nominated. At this caucus meeting a financial report is rendered to the board.<sup>21</sup> In Nebraska the school meeting elects school-board members and may transact such business as voting school tax, consolidation of districts, and other matters pertaining to school properties.<sup>22</sup> These states are representative of those in which the district meeting is a relatively minor feature of the control plan.

Contrasting with these are a number of states in which the district meeting exercises extensive powers over the local school. New York, Wisconsin, Kansas, and South Dakota are scattered representatives of a group of perhaps a dozen states with strong district meeting control.

The New York laws devote some ten pages to the subject of district meetings.<sup>23</sup> Full details of how, when, and where the meeting is to be called and conducted, who may vote, and the powers of the voters are set forth. The meeting exercises extensive control over all finances, properties, insurance, and pupil transportation and through these can determine in large measure the kind of instructional program and the school policies (within the limits of the school code).

In Wisconsin the law provides for equally extensive powers for the district meeting.<sup>24</sup> Many powers are specified in detail, as, to elect board members, determine length of school year (not less than nine months), direct the board as to litigation affecting the district, direct sale of school property,

authorize board to provide pupil transportation, and to permit use of the school plant for meetings, etc. The high-school-district meeting has all the powers granted to the common-school-district meeting.

In Kansas the powers of the district meeting are not enumerated in great detail but in effect it has power to make the school budget.<sup>25</sup>

In South Dakota the annual meeting of electors has power "to instruct the board in matters pertaining to the management of the schools for the coming year," specifying "the branches to be taught in addition to those hereinafter prescribed," the time schools are to be held, "the amount of the tax levy," repairs and erection of building or teacher's home, purchase or sale of properties, "and upon any other subject pertaining to the schools."<sup>26</sup> Elsewhere the law empowers the board to provide books, maps, and apparatus for the teacher's use upon approval of the county superintendent of schools, but adds the proviso that "no district school board shall buy any apparatus, chart, or similar device unless the board is expressly authorized so to do by a majority of the school electors of such school district at a regular or regularly called special meeting thereof."<sup>27</sup>

As already noted, in practically all states the district meeting is not available for use in city and town districts. In such more populous areas the powers of the board of education are larger accordingly.

## 6. Meaning of Trend Away From District Meeting Control

Although the above sampling review of our school laws on the district meeting must be regarded as no more than a sketch for a complete study of the development and present status of this feature of our scheme of self-government for schools, it clearly indicates a trend away from management by the people direct and toward management by boards as their representatives.

Such a trend may be quite sound and fully acceptable, but there are good reasons for making sure our steps in any movement affecting self-government, especially if at the same time, it seems to be separating the schools from the people. That centralization in government is now so much the fashion should not blind us to the possible dangers of going too far for the good of the school,

<sup>18</sup>School Laws of the State of Colorado—1933. Secs. 192, 193, 198, 200.

<sup>19</sup>Virginia School Laws—1940. Chap. 33, Sec. 661.

<sup>20</sup>General School Law of South Carolina—1936. Sec. 5384, Item 5.

<sup>21</sup>The School Law of Illinois. Circ. 332, 1941, Sec. 114, Par. First. Also, Sec. 106, of the School Law of Illinois—1939.

<sup>22</sup>Nebraska School Laws—1941. Specific powers of the meeting (annual or special) are listed in numerous places in the law. See index, under: Meetings; District voters; District board.

<sup>23</sup>Education Law—1940. New York. Article 7.

<sup>24</sup>Laws of Wisconsin Relating to Common Schools. 1942. Chap. 40 (see index at head of chapter).

<sup>25</sup>Kansas School Laws. 1939. Chap. X, Art. 2, Sec. 271.

<sup>26</sup>The Public School Laws of the State of South Dakota—1943. Chap. 15.23, Sec. 15.2310. See also, Sec. 15.2329.

<sup>27</sup>In similar vein the Wyoming law empowers the meeting "To transact generally such business as may tend to promote the cause of education." School Laws of the State of Wyoming—1937. Chap. IV, Sec. 184, Par. 9.

<sup>17</sup>State of Nevada—The School Code—1935. Chap. VI, Sec. 67, p. 4.

<sup>18</sup>1937 Statutes of Nevada. Chap. 176, Sec. 1. Supplement to 1935 School Code (containing corrections of and omissions from the 1935 School Code and laws relating to schools passed 1937, 1939, and 1941 sessions).



certainly the right of self-government should be carefully safeguarded; but, neither should we try to use the methods of self-government where they clearly are not suited. There are reasons why the school should be kept close to the people, but there are many ways of doing this, direct control by the people being but one way. Change is as inevitable and as necessary in our plan of government for schools as it is in other branches of the government, and to harness a present-day program of instruction with a machinery of control designed for pioneer days and a traditional three R's program would be unthinkable.

To get at the significance of this trend we should determine whether the abandonment of this particular device represents a real loss, either educational or governmental, and whether the loss is unavoidable. That the district meeting has been of value as a means of developing schools in this country no one can doubt. It was well suited to frontier life, to pioneer times, to the small and isolated community school; and competent enough to manage schools when the program was narrow, simple, and traditional. On the frontier its value was far more than that of keeping the school going. It was an excellent program of adult education in which our people had opportunity to learn about the most important thing they had to learn, viz., how to govern themselves. That this experience, going on in every little schoolhouse in the land, helped toward the success of our great experiment in democracy there can be little doubt. It must have helped materially in building up the profound faith we now have in education, and surely it contributed to the enrichment of social life for thousands of lonely people. Not the least, also, it brought the people together to consider the education of their children and thereby served, crudely no doubt, to co-ordinate the efforts of home and school in behalf of the children, making at once for better education and for permanence and continuity of our democratic cultural pattern.

The district meeting may not have initiated many great reforms in education or contributed to scientific progress in its program, but this matter of keeping the people close to the schools and the schools close to the people cannot be taken lightly. For accomplishing that task neither magic nor science can offer a simple formula. Without the good will, the interest, the zeal of the people we cannot develop a system of free schools that will really contribute, as education must contribute, to the maintenance of our kind of country. The people will not support schools unless they really believe in them, and they will not believe in them unless they understand them and feel a sense of ownership in them and a sense of responsible partnership in their management. Further than this, learning will not go on well at school unless the child senses that the home is definitely in partnership

with his school. More and more as knowledge and experience in government and in the social and economic processes of everyday life are being brought into the instructional program we see, also, that the school must have close contact with the community and the state in these respects. Not social necessity alone, but educational science as well, dictates this.

Since the district meeting furnished one vital contact between the people and their school its passing must raise the question of whether we are dropping it in favor of a better device for control or management, or, in order to improve the instructional work of the school itself, or possibly all of these. Or, could it be general apathy? Power to operate through a district meeting is a power granted to a district by a state legislature. It is authority to transact specified school business by a specified method. In the history of our state school legislation most of the powers granted to the district have remained with the district, at least in part. Many of these powers have been modified to fit in with new legislation and often the laws granting broad general powers have been amended in respect to some detail, for instance, as to the method of their operation. When the state has taken authority away from the district, as it did, in many states when it made it impossible for a district to build just any kind of schoolhouse, it has not been the purpose to destroy local initiative, or to thwart local taste or ambition, but only to raise the standard in respect to essential features of the school plant. The district still does its own work.

By the California laws of 1923 the only laws directly limiting the freedom of a school board in schoolhouse construction were that buildings of two or more stories must have "suitable and sufficient fire escapes,"<sup>28</sup> and all buildings must "be provided with sanitary equipment for personal cleanliness."<sup>29</sup> This latter was binding, though it was a regulation of the state board of education only, not a statute. Besides these two regulations by law there existed an earlier act (of May 27, 1921) empowering the county superintendent to compel school trustees to repair their buildings, etc. In 1925 the county superintendent was authorized to approve building plans before trustees (outside of city districts) could proceed with construction.<sup>30</sup> The law of 1927 provides a further extension of this outside supervision of schoolhouse construction by empowering the state department of education to pass upon the plans.<sup>31</sup> This brought the present highly efficient State Division of Schoolhouse Planning.

This California case illustrates how in our school laws many of the general powers of local districts have been developed into numbers of special powers and duties

<sup>28</sup>*School Law of California—1923. Art. XXI, Sec. 1890.*

<sup>29</sup>*Ibid.*, Sec. p. 426, item b, which is a rule of the state board of education.

<sup>30</sup>*Ibid.*, 1925, Art. III, sec. 1543, paragraph 12.

<sup>31</sup>*Ibid.*, 1927, Part III, Art. IIc, sec. 362g.

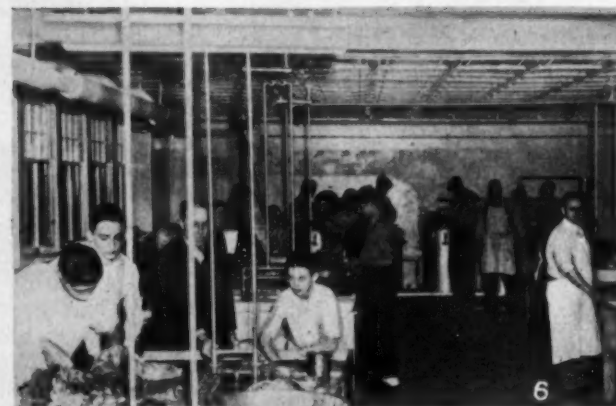
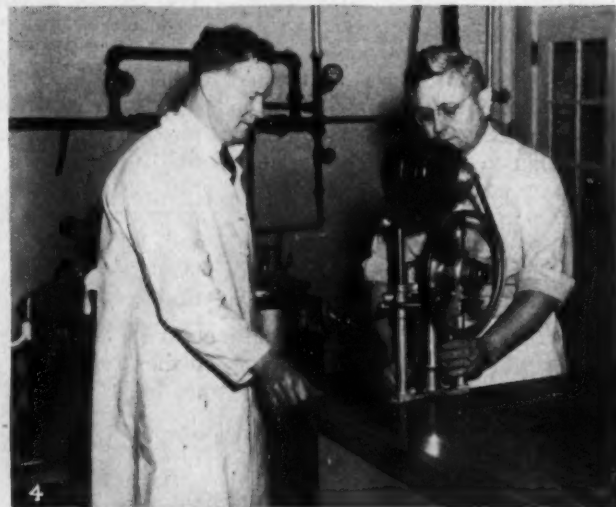
and how this type of sorting has brought the state and the county more intimately into the task of local school administration; but it serves, also, to show that the power to carry on the work still remains with the district. It furnishes a picture, therefore, of one fundamental fact that has to be faced in evaluating such change as is here under consideration and provides a fair exhibit of normal growth in our scheme of educational control. As we learned more about health problems in school, about sanitation, about schoolhouse planning we had to find a way to bring the new knowledge to bear. This meant additional school laws involving a rearrangement of responsibilities of officers—new machinery, and adjustments in old machinery to fit changing, and most of the time with us, expanding needs.

The cases above set forth illustrate how in some states we have moved away from the district meeting to management by a board of education and in others how the people have merely changed the method by which they themselves give directions. Whether giving up the "school meeting," with its opportunity for parents to come together and talk over school matters, is a loss, either to self-government or to the school service is beside the point in populous and geographically large places where it is physically unworkable. Giving up the school meeting in isolated rural and village districts, where, on some matters if not all, it is as workable as it ever was is another question, but before being frightened by such a trend we should take note of other facts.

First of all, education is now far more complex than formerly, and by that fact its needs and procedures must be determined more and more by trained experts. Thus the former realm of popular government has been invaded not only by population growth but also by scientific development in education as well. A third invasion has been by the law itself, which in bulk is at least double or treble what it was in Civil War days. There is more law, partly because of scientific developments in education, but partly, also, because all life, for institutions as well as individuals, has become more complex. The complexity that has brought us more laws has also greatly increased the difficulties of direct legislation by the people.

This, then, is what has actually taken place, and it seems to indicate that the devices of popular government have some limitations which we need to know about if we are to make wise use of them and especially so if we are to replace them. Under what circumstances can and should we provide for direct legislation by the people? First, let us consider by what possible ways the people may exercise control over their government, the management of schools being our concern here.

(To be concluded in September)



### A VOCATIONAL SCHOOL CO-OPERATIVE CANNERY

Under the direction of Mr. L. H. Alberty, state director of vocational education for Nebraska, numerous community canneries have been conducted as a war enterprise in Nebraska communities. The school illustrated is at Lincoln, Nebraska. 1. Boys cutting beef for canning. 2. Preparing asparagus. 3. Packing beef into cans. 4. Sealing cans. 5. The steel cookers. 6. General view of the cannery in operation. 7. Mrs. Louise B. Anderson, supervisor of the plant.

Mr. Alberty has found that the co-operative canneries are of economic and social advantage to the patrons and to the schools, and that they are a vast help in solving the war food problem.



# Seeing in the Schoolhouse

William G. Darley<sup>a</sup>

## Introduction

The science of illumination, or of brightness distributions for seeing, appears to have received its initial technical consideration in the 1700's. At that time Rumford<sup>1</sup> working with flame sources became concerned with methods of reducing the brightnesses of the sources in order to provide more comfortable seeing conditions. This study of the *quality of lighting* was a natural place to start, because glare in its primary form (a bright light source in the visual field) produces a relatively obvious effect upon the ease of seeing.

The effect of the *quantity of light* on seeing is much less obvious, particularly when illumination levels produce supra-threshold visibilities and the range of illumination available for study is limited. It was not until early in the 1900's, when more powerful illuminants were perfected and illuminations providing visibilities well above thresholds began to be used, that science became seriously concerned with the influence of the quantity of light upon seeing.

Since that time there has accumulated a vast store of knowledge regarding the influences of the quality of lighting and the quantity of light upon comfortable and easy seeing. In general, the information on the quality of lighting has pertained directly to the brightness of the source of illumination. Considerations as to the treatment (finish) of other surfaces in the environment have been largely limited to the influence that the finishes have upon the quantity of light reaching the working plane. For reasons which will be discussed later, this approach was acceptable as long as foot-candles<sup>b</sup> were of a low order. Recently, however, illuminations have been moving up to levels which make it essential to

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<sup>b</sup> The light outputs of practically all lamps (light sources) which are used in the schoolhouse are expressed in terms of lumens. If these lumens are controlled so that there is a density on the working surface of 100 lumens per square foot, for instance, an illumination of 100 foot-candles results.

consider the finishes of surfaces in terms of their effect upon the brightness pattern of the environment.

Research has emphasized that for best seeing conditions the brightness of surfaces in the visual field when looking at the work should not be higher than, nor much lower than the brightness of the work. Thus to create modern, comfortable seeing conditions, those who would presume to prescribe natural and artificial lighting facilities for the schoolhouse must take into account the finishes of floors, furniture, chalkboard areas and trim, as well as take a more positive attitude toward the location of windows and desks and toward interior decoration generally.

## PART I

### Factors Influencing Seeing

Seeing is influenced by a great many things. The most commonly appreciated factor has been the visibility of the material being viewed. Another factor which is rapidly coming to the fore as the dominant one is the visual comfort with which the task is accomplished. In general, the factors influencing visibility also influence eye comfort. It appears, however, that an evaluation of eye comfort is a more valuable criterion of the severity of a visual task than is a measurement of visibility, because discomfort may be experienced before visibility is adversely influenced in some cases. This is probably because comfort includes the element of time — that is, the duration of the period to which the eye is exposed to the visual task and its surroundings. With one or two exceptions, for instance, in the case of readability mentioned below, it can be assumed that an increase in visibility also results in a greater ease of seeing.

#### Size

Possibly the most obvious factor influencing seeing is the size of the object being viewed. Size is considered in terms of the visual angle which the object subtends. In the classroom, a 3-inch high character on a chalkboard intercepts a relatively large ( $14^{\circ}15'$ ) visual angle for the teacher at the board; with her eyes

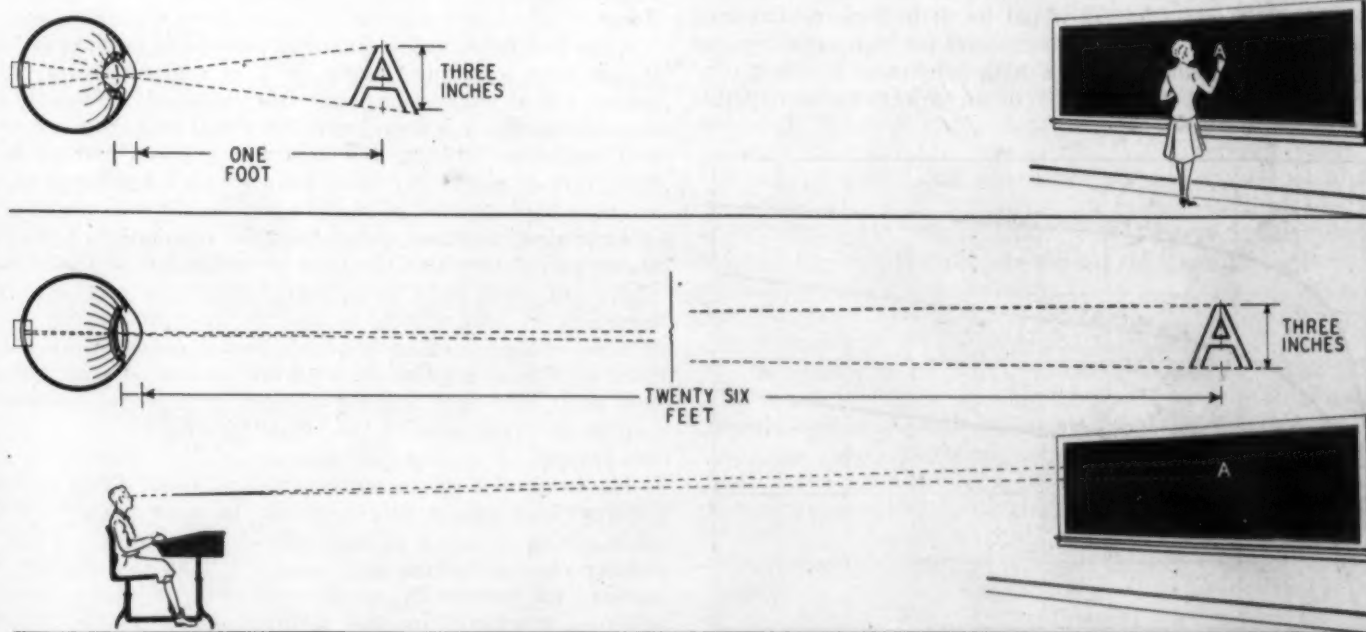


Fig. 1. A 3-inch character is about  $4/100$  as "large" when seen by the student at the back of the room as it is when seen by the teacher at the board. Note the relative area of the retina covered by the image of the letter in the two cases.

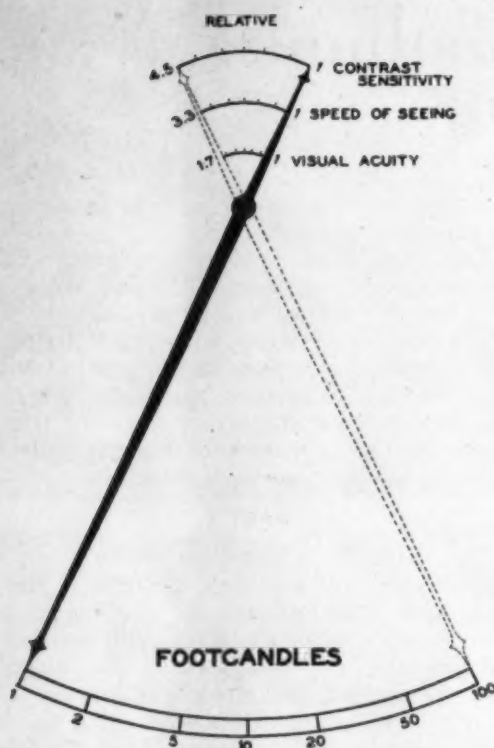


Fig. 2. A schematic presentation of the relative influence of level of illumination upon three fundamental visual functions.

1 foot distant from the board; however, for a pupil seated in the back of the room 26 feet from the board, the "size" of the letter is greatly reduced (to 33'), Figure 1. A common example of the application of "size" in connection with vision is the Snellen chart which is used by eyesight specialists to determine one's "seeing efficiency." Within certain limits, increasing the size of an object increases its visibility and the ease of seeing.<sup>2</sup>

#### Revealing Brightness Contrast

The brightness difference between a letter and its immediate background which reveals the details of the letter is called *brightness contrast*.<sup>3, 4</sup> Since the black letters on this page are much more visible than white letters would be, it is obvious that it is desirable to have a high brightness contrast for high visibility and so for comfortable seeing. Since a high brightness contrast contributes materially to the visibility of an object, for clarity this

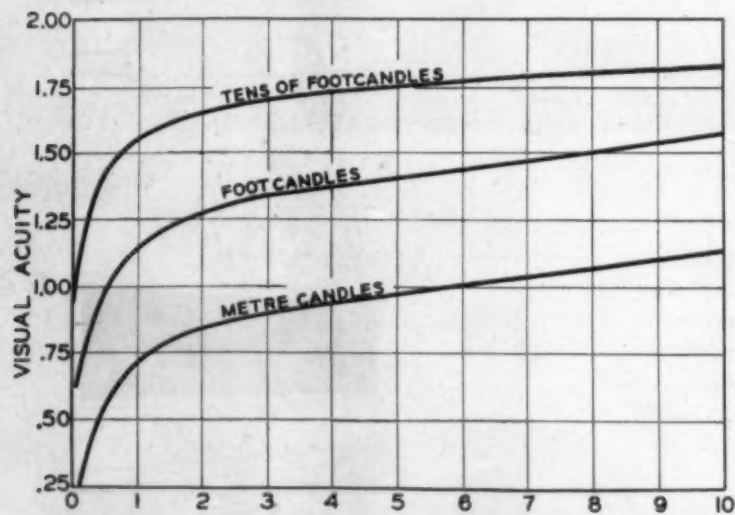


Fig. 4. The relation between visual acuity and illumination expressed on a linear scale using three different sets of illumination units.

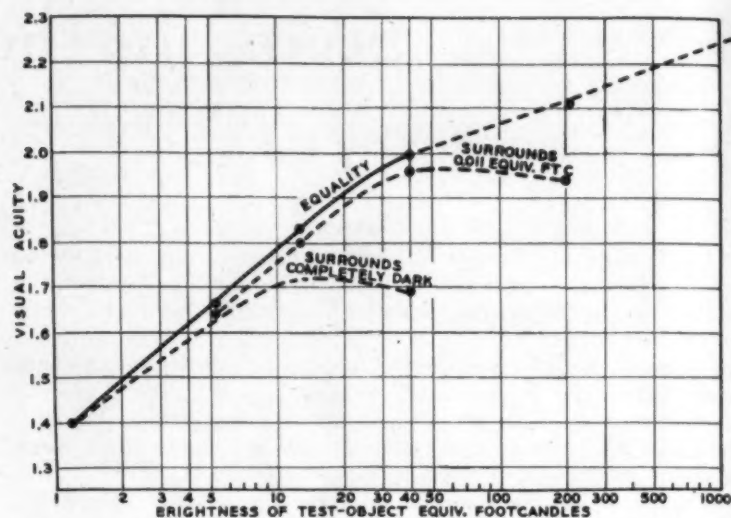


Fig. 3. The influence of surrounding brightness on the visual acuity versus illumination relation. For the two highest readings, the surrounding brightness was 38.1 equivalent footcandles (footlamberts).

type of brightness difference can be referred to as a *revealing brightness contrast*. It is conveniently expressed in per cent.<sup>6</sup>

For some schoolroom tasks the brightness contrast between writing or printing and its background can be improved. Thus the use of soft pencils on white papers produces much more visible results than the use of hard pencils on colored papers. Again the use of black or very dark ink for stencil duplication on white paper produces material which is easier to read than does the use of lighter colored ink and off-white paper.

#### Readability

In addition to obtaining a high visibility by proper attention to revealing brightness contrast and size, the actual readability of printed material is controllable. Readability is obviously affected by the visibility of the type, but it is possible to have a large type of high visibility which is too large or poorly designed for easy reading. Other factors which influence readability and concerning which data are available are the particular type face used, the length of the line of type, and the space (leading) between the lines of type.<sup>2</sup>

#### Time

Time is a considerable factor in seeing.<sup>5</sup> If a wheel is held still, it can be seen quite easily. If it is rotated slowly, fairly accurate visual impressions can be registered. However, if it is rotated rapidly, it is found that the visual snapshots are not made with sufficient rapidity to "stop" the action. In other words, it takes time to see. Under some conditions it takes longer to register a satisfactory impression of an object than it does under others.

Time also influences seeing from the standpoint of the duration of the period to which the eyes are subjected to the visual task. There are some tasks in industry which are so severe that the operators are only allowed to work at them for 15-minute periods because of the eye effort involved. Hence, consideration as to how essential it is to improve the visibility or ease of seeing of a given task must take into account whether it involves intermittent or continuous application of the visual function.

#### Brightness

The brightness of the work is also a factor. Thus it is not uncommon for a person subconsciously to move toward the window when trying to see a difficult visual task indoors. Since in the average classroom there may be only 5 to 10 foot-candles in some parts of the room with possibly well over 100 foot-candles at the windows, a material increase in brightness is usually achieved by such a move.

Considerable research has been devoted to determining the

<sup>6</sup> Perfectly black print on perfectly white paper, or vice versa, would represent 100 per cent contrast.



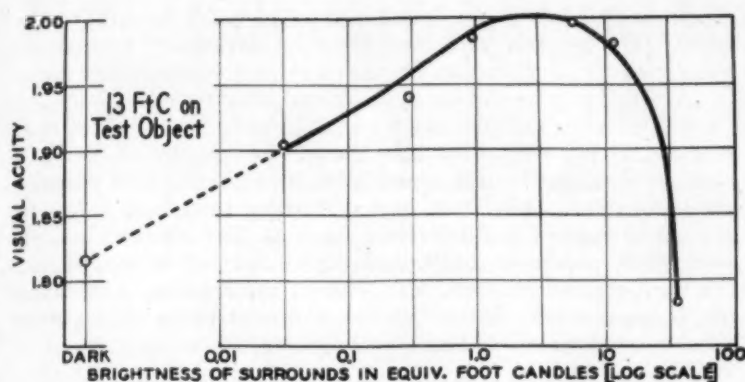


Fig. 5. The influence of brightness of surrounds on visual acuity with a constant brightness of test object.

interrelationships of size, brightness contrast, time, and brightness on visibility. Since in the classroom it is usually found that the size of the visual task is predetermined, that the time allotted for seeing should be held to a minimum, and that the revealing brightness contrast of the critical detail and its background is fixed, it is apparent that the influence most easily and most universally applicable to increasing the visibility of the task is brightness. Investigations by Luckiesh and Moss<sup>5</sup> show that increasing the illumination from 1 to 100 foot-candles increases visual acuity 70 per cent, speed of seeing 230 per cent, and ability to perceive objects having a low contrast with their background by 350 per cent (Fig. 2). These results are well corroborated by researches by Ferree and Rand,<sup>6</sup> Nutting,<sup>7</sup> and Lythgoe and Tansley.<sup>8</sup>

Lythgoe<sup>9</sup> has carried studies of the influence of brightness on visual acuity to brightnesses above 1000 foot-lambert.<sup>4</sup> The top curve of Figure 3 (titled *equality* over the solid part of the curve) indicates the increments in visual acuity which Lythgoe obtained as the brightness of the test patch was increased above 1200 equivalent foot-candles (foot-lamberts). (These data were taken with the brightness of the test patch and the brightness of the surroundings approximately equal up to about 40 foot-lamberts. The brightness of the surroundings was held at this point as the brightness of the test patch was increased beyond it.) This finding has been corroborated by Moon.<sup>10</sup>

As a matter of interest, Lythgoe plotted data of visual acuity vs. brightness with the brightness values on Cartesian instead of logarithmic co-ordinates to illustrate why it is sometimes stated that visual acuity for detail does not improve much above 3 foot-candles. Lythgoe has the following to say about this matter:<sup>9</sup>

There have been considerable disputes about the illumination at which the visual acuity is maximum, some workers putting it as low as 1 e.-fc. (equivalent foot-candle or foot-lambert) and others as high as 7750 e.-fc.<sup>6</sup> These huge differences are very probably due to the method of expressing results, as this should always be done with the illumination on a logarithmic scale. On such a scale equal distances along the illumination scale correspond to equal percentage increases in the illumination of the test-object. The graph relating visual acuity and illumination is a straight line, if illuminations are plotted on a logarithmic scale. It is very common, however, for workers to express their results in a linear graph connecting visual acuity and illumination (Fig. 4). Since the relation is approximately logarithmic, it follows that all they are doing when they plot their results to a linear scale is to plot a linear graph of a logarithmic function. The result obtained by such workers depends almost entirely on the country in which they happen to work. If they work in metre-candles,<sup>11</sup> visual acuity will appear to come to a maximum between 3 and 4 metre-candles. If they work in England with foot-candles, then visual acuity will appear to come to a maximum at about 3 or 4 foot-candles. On the other hand, if the work is being done by a modern American who thinks in terms of tens of foot-candles, then acuity is a maximum between 30 and 40 foot-candles. What these workers are really doing is to express a well-known property of logarithms. Looked at in this light, one can classify workers on visual acuity into those who work on a linear scale and get low values for the maximal brightness and those who work on a logarithmic scale and get a high value for the maximal brightness.

It is interesting to note that the reflection factor of some dark

<sup>4</sup> If a surface emits or reflects (diffusely) 100 lumens per square foot, for instance, the brightness of the surface is 100 foot-lamberts.

<sup>6</sup> Reader advised to note p. 52 of reference.

<sup>11</sup> 1 metre-candle equals approximately 0.1 foot-candle.

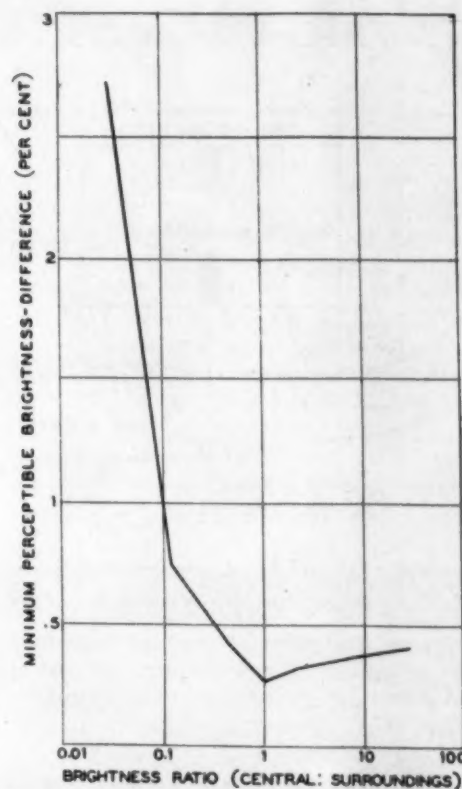


Fig. 6. The relationship between minimum perceptible brightness-difference and the ratio of the brightness of the central visual field to the brightness of the surrounding field. (Fig. 5.)

cloths is about 10 per cent. Thus to give this material a brightness of 1000 foot-lamberts would require 10,000 foot-candles — approximately the maximum illumination found outdoors with sunlight and skylight combined.

#### Disturbing Brightness Ratio

A brightness difference between the work<sup>8</sup> and its surroundings makes it more difficult to see the work, or is disturbing. This brightness difference is called brightness ratio.<sup>3, 4</sup>

Actually a brightness ratio is simply the ratio of the brightness of any two surfaces; however, it generally refers to the ratio of the average brightness of the work to that of some other surface in the surroundings. For instance, with overly bright luminaires in the field of view, the ratio of the brightness of the luminaires to the brightness of the work is high. For clarity, brightness differences of this type may be referred to as *disturbing* brightness ratios.

Lythgoe<sup>9</sup> found that when the surroundings are of a different brightness than the test patch, there are definite reductions in visual acuity. It will be observed in Figure 3 that the *rate of increase* in visual acuity shown by the top curve decreases materially when the surroundings cease to be equally as bright as the test patch (above 40 foot-lamberts). The middle and lower curves in Figure 3 further emphasize this point.

The "influence of brightness of surrounds on visual acuity" is also noted in Figure 5. This figure shows how with a constant illumination of the test object at 13 foot-candles, the visual acuity improves slowly as the surrounding illumination is raised to the level of the test object or a little below. When the surrounding illumination is raised above this point, there is a very rapid falling off in performance.<sup>11</sup>

Lythgoe and Tansley<sup>12</sup> have also shown that unfavorable (disturbing) brightness ratios reduce the sensitivity to flicker — which is interpreted as meaning that they reduce the speed of seeing.

Cobb<sup>13</sup> has shown that high, disturbing brightness ratios reduce contrast sensitivity (Fig. 6). Cobb and Moss<sup>14</sup> showed that for a task consisting of setting two black pointers in vertical alignment

<sup>8</sup> Composed of the critical detail and its immediate background.

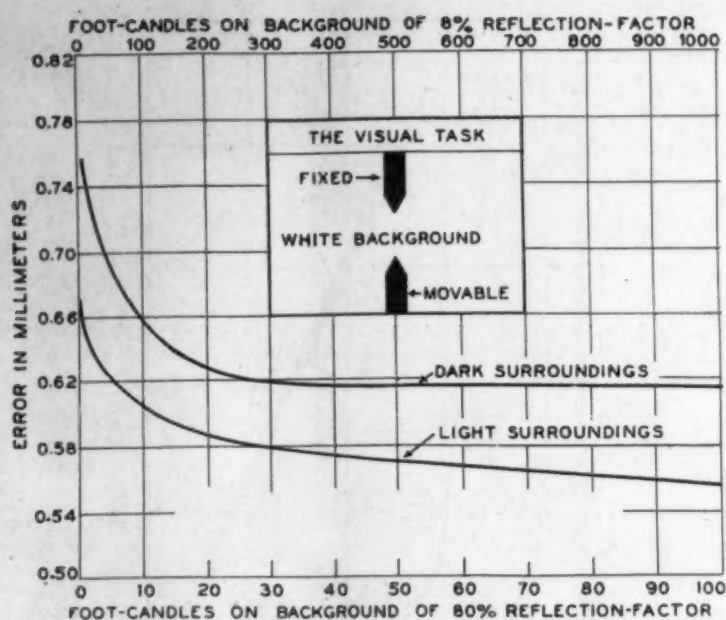


Fig. 7. Showing the effect of level of illumination upon the precision of performing a mechanical task guided by vision. The insert illustrates the visual task. The term "dark surroundings" means that the visual field, except for the small portion shown by the insert, was comparatively dark. "Light surroundings" means that the entire visual field was approximately the same brightness as the field immediately about the test-object. (Fig. 5.)

through the turning of a hand wheel which moved one of them, the change from dark to light surroundings around the visual task decreased the magnitudes of the errors of alignment (Fig. 7). (It was also observed [Fig. 7] that marked decreases in the error of adjustment were obtained when the brightness of the white background [behind the pointers] was increased by increasing the level of illumination.)

High disturbing brightness ratios in the field of view require that the eyes go through the process of adapting<sup>15</sup> for the different brightnesses as the eyes follow a natural course throughout the field of view. The effort involved undoubtedly leads to fatigue and in nowise contributes to the better performance of the visual task. If the eyes are normal, they can stand abuse surprisingly well. On the other hand, if the eyes are subnormal and the seeing task is unnecessarily severe,<sup>16</sup> the added eye fatigue may reasonably cumulate into a more serious condition.

In previous recommendations for the lighting of schoolhouses, considerations of brightness ratios have been largely limited to the actual sources of illumination and their reflections, and when these were high they were said to be a source of *glare*. Glare is still a good term to apply to the deleterious effects of high disturbing brightness ratios. On the other hand, a full understanding of the influences of brightness ratios on seeing conditions is necessary to understand that glare is not a fixed thing. Hence, enclosing globes having a brightness of 1230 foot-lamberts ( $2\frac{1}{2}$  candles per square inch) and bare fluorescent lamps having slightly higher brightnesses, are usually sources of glare when within the field of view for prolonged periods in the average interior. However, if these same sources were mounted out of doors in the daytime, with the brightnesses of the work and of the rest of the environment much higher than they are indoors, the "glare" sources would cease to be glaring, just as an automobile headlamp which is quite glaring at night ceases to be a source of glare in the daytime.

The concept of brightness ratios also broadens our appreciation of the things which cause glare. Common complaints, heard particularly about fluorescent lighting, are that the light hurts the eyes or that there is too much light. It is well established that the

light from illuminants in common use today is not harmful to the eyes<sup>16, 17, 18, 19, 20</sup> and that even the best artificially lighted interiors result in brightnesses for the work and surroundings (with the possible exception of the light source) which are but fractions of the brightnesses of the outdoor environment. It is obvious that the difficulty lies with other than the spectral quality of the light or the level of illumination. Quite often it has been found that the complaint arises solely from high disturbing brightness ratios in the field of view of the individual, such as that which exists between white papers on black desk tops,<sup>1</sup> and has nothing to do with the light source itself. The level of illumination is involved only because at the higher levels brightness ratios which were tolerable at lower levels become disturbing.<sup>21</sup>

#### The Eye

During the major part of our evolutionary development, man's eyes were used principally during the daytime and for seeing things at a distance. Prolonged concentration on detail was not a requirement of existence for the vast majority of our early progenitors. At the same time, the eyes also developed the abilities to exert muscular effort to turn inward so that things could be seen up close when necessary, and to see a certain amount at low brightness levels. Man was not called upon until comparatively recent times to undertake tasks requiring long-continued, close visual application. Today, most of this close eye work is carried on indoors, where the illumination which has usually been provided does not approach that to which eyes became accustomed in past centuries. The process of becoming civilized or of becoming educated, therefore, is responsible for placing a very unnatural burden upon the eyes of mankind in general and upon the eyes of school children.

No matter to what length we go to improve the visibility and the comfort of seeing schoolroom tasks, as long as the eyes of the child are chained to work held less than arms' length away or as long as they are chained to the discernment of critical detail for prolonged periods at any distance, there will be an unnatural burden upon the eyes of the students. Today when there remains so much to be done to achieve optimum visibilities and seeing conditions for classroom tasks (and in the work-world) we are developing into a nation of visual cripples. Reference to the percentage of our young men who are unable to qualify for the air forces because of deficiencies in vision emphasizes this point. It is further borne out by the fact that while most children enter school with so-called normal vision, 22 per cent of those who graduate from high school are afflicted with some form of eye defectiveness while 40 per cent of those who graduate from college are so handicapped.<sup>22</sup> It has been truly said that eyeglasses are the badge of civilization — of an educated society.

In considering the degree of visibility to provide for a given eye task in the schoolhouse, account must be taken of the ability of the individual eyes subjected to that task. Some of these eyes register much more perfect visual impressions than others. As a matter of fact, in a regular classroom eyes might range from those possessing so-called normal vision to those with a degree of defectiveness which is just above the point below which the student possessing them would be admitted to a sightsaving classroom. Also, some eyes are more sensitive to disturbing brightness ratios in the visual field and to other defects in the environmental seeing condition. Eyes which are more sensitive may or may not have the attribute which would cause them to be classed as "normal."

#### Eyeglasses

Eyeglasses are probably the most accepted aid for improving the visual effectiveness of those who are handicapped by eye

(Concluded on page 60)

<sup>1</sup> In one case, an office building was relighted raising the illumination from about 10 foot-candles to 50 foot-candles. Not long after the relighting was completed, one of the building occupants complained that his new fluorescent lighting was producing "too much light," or the light from the lamps was hurting his eyes or something. The complaint was studied by an illuminating engineer from the viewpoint of the individual seated at the desk. It was found that the brightness ratio between the white paper used and the black desk top was very high and quite disturbing. Substituting a light (35 per cent reflection factor) linoleum for the black (7 per cent reflection factor) linoleum entirely eliminated all objections from this individual. Not long after, there was a similar case in the building and the same solution was equally effective.

<sup>16</sup> Because of the small size of details, or poor brightness contrast, or because the task is of long duration, or there is a poor brightness relationship with its surroundings, etc.



# How Education Fits Into the New World Peace

George G. Mullany

When the smoke screen of misunderstanding that surrounded the early days of the United Nations Conference at San Francisco cleared away, the foundation stones of the new world peace structure came into view with several marked "education."

Behind that word written into the San Francisco Charter in six widely separated paragraphs of the Charter was the story of a corps of diplomatic educators who saw the vision of their objective from the first and campaigned with a singleness of purpose that was inspiring to one whose privilege it was to watch the progress of this campaign from behind the scenes.

All those identified with the educational success of the San Francisco Conference know that education started out with the handicap of fear on the part of the UNCIO American delegation, that mention of the word "education" in the Charter would make its adoption by Congress difficult because of the use of that one word. The legitimate fear was that the San Francisco Charter might get tangled with the domestic controversy over federal control and aid to education. Then, while the educational consultants were listening to this hushed word of fear out in San Francisco, they were treated to a surprise, Congress passed Senator Karl E. Mundt's resolution urging "participation by the government of the United States in the creation of an international educational and cultural organization by which the nations of the world would meet for the purpose of advising together and to consider problems of international educational and cultural relations throughout the world." The resolution was introduced in the upper house by Senator J. William Fulbright.

When Secretary of State Edward R. Stettinius received this news at San Francisco from the educational advisers he smiled from ear to ear and said "Now we are out in front."

Of great significance also was Document No. 1 released on the opening day of the San Francisco meeting containing three proposals from the Chinese delegation. The third proposal said "the Economic and Social Council should specifically provide for the promotion of education and other forms of educational co-operation." These words opened the door to international co-operation in education.

On the ground at San Francisco were three educational statesmen who loomed large in the conferences and previous proceedings: Dr. Frank L. Schlagle, president of the National Education Association and superintendent of schools at Kansas City, Kans.; Dr. George F. Zook, chairman of the American Association of Colleges and Universities, and Dr. William G. Carr, secretary of the Educational Policies Commission.

Participating with these gentlemen were Carl Milam, secretary of the American Library

Association; James T. Shotwell of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; Dr. Ben F. Cherrington, chancellor of the University of Denver; Dr. A. J. Cloud, president of San Francisco Junior College; and Dr. Curtis E. Warren, superintendent of schools at San Francisco.

Dr. Grayson N. Kefauver, former dean of the School of Education at Stanford University, now attached to the State Department, drew the proposed draft of the resolution for the creation of an international office of education which will hold its first meeting

cultural matters and may make recommendations with respect to such matters to the General Assembly, to the members of the United Nations, and to specialized agencies concerned.

4. In Chapter XI, *members of the United Nations* which have or assume responsibilities for the administration of territories whose peoples have not yet attained a full measure of self-government accept the obligation of insuring *educational* and cultural development of such peoples. Also members shall transmit regularly to the secretary general for informa-



Standing, Dr. Frank L. Schlagle, educational consultant at the United Nations Conference on International Organization held in San Francisco; seated, Supt. Curtis E. Warren, San Francisco, and Louis Lancaster, representing the California State Department.

in London, England, soon. In this organization the five major powers and many smaller nations will be represented. As contemplated now, this organization will be meshed in with the new world organization through the Economic and Social Council. The power for improving education throughout the world—thus preventing education for war—is seen in the words of the San Francisco Charter which are as follows:

1. In Chapter IV, the *General Assembly* is authorized to initiate studies and make recommendations for the purpose of promoting international *educational* and cultural co-operation.

2. In Chapter IX, the *United Nations* are directed to promote solutions of international problems of *educational* and cultural co-operation.

3. In Chapter X, the *Economic and Social Council* may make or initiate studies and reports with respect to *educational* and

tion purposes, statistical and other information of a technical nature relating to the *educational* and cultural conditions in these territories.

5. In Chapter XII, *The International Trusteeship System* is to promote the social and *educational* advancement of trust territories.

6. In Chapter XIII, *The Trusteeship Council* shall formulate a questionnaire on the social and *educational* advancement of the inhabitants of each trust territory and the administering authority shall make an annual report to the General Assembly on such questions.

Apart from the liberal use of the word "education" in the San Francisco Charter, the importance of the manner in which the Economic and Social Council has grown in the general organization should not be overlooked. When the San Francisco Conference opened the Council was set far below the



CAN WE SAVE THE CHILDREN FROM THE FATE THAT HAS BEEN OURS?  
Cartoon by Cloyd Sweigert in San Francisco Chronicle on the opening day of the San Francisco Conference.

General Assembly, the International Court of Justice, and the Security Council in the charts made public. In the present organization chart the Economic and Social Council has been elevated right on a line with the General Assembly. How this change came about reflects the shifting emphasis given to education as the meeting progressed.

The first idea of all delegates to the San Francisco Conference was that the new world organization was to keep the peace by force alone. As the discussion developed, it was agreed that the contributing causes of war generated in the economic and social fields of a nation should be given greater attention. As Marshal Jan Smuts of South Africa explained, the prevention of war comes in the ambition of peoples, in freedom, equality, health and education.

As this thought was generated from educational consultants to the American delegation, Commander Harold Stassen remarked that "we came here for one thing, now it develops that our fields are broadening toward a change in emphasis."

At this stage of the thinking, the force generated by the entire program of the educational leaders, education became the spearhead

through which the outlook of the American delegation was changed for the better.

Drs. Schlagle and Zook met with other members of the educational consultant group and through suggestions developed at these meetings it was agreed that education must present a united front with the representatives of labor, business, and agriculture, the entire group comprising the majority of 42 consultants to the American delegation at the San Francisco Conference.

Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve of Barnard College, a member of the American delegation, arranged for the appearance of the group before the American delegation. Here it was pointed out that the entire program of human rights is tied in with any effort to keep the peace, and with 60 per cent of the world illiterate, education must be the spearhead of such a program. On the very legitimate premise that war is sometimes taught, it follows that education is a means of conveying the entire program of peace. On this broad outline, the importance of education in the scheme of world peace was recognized in the San Francisco Charter. The second phase of this program of education for keeping the peace will be developed from the conference to be held

in London sometime in August at which it is expected that the International Office of Education will blossom out as a component part of the new world organization.

Students of this subject will be quick to point out that at none of the conferences which preceded San Francisco's were educational or cultural questions mentioned. They were not mentioned in the Atlantic Charter in August, 1941, the Moscow Conference of November, 1943, the Terehan Conference in December, 1943, the Dumbarton Oaks meeting in October, 1944, the Crimea Conference, February, 1945, or the 1945 Mexico Conference.

The preconference plan of representation did not contemplate representation by groups—education, labor, business, or agriculture. Dr. Schlagle recognized in Dean Gildersleeve one who knew the importance of education in the maintenance of the peace. Dean Gildersleeve met with Dr. Schlagle and other leading educators at Philadelphia and the problem of education and peace was discussed. Previously, Dr. Kefauver, Cherrington, and Shotwell had been advising with Secretary of State Cordell Hull concerning the part education should play in the new world picture. On another front were two long time friends of education Nelson Rockefeller and Archibald MacLeish who came into the State Department with a full recognition of the part education could play in world peace.

Thus as Mr. Hull faded from the picture and Mr. Stettinius came in as secretary of state, there was a continuity of representation within the State Department as to how education could assist in keeping the peace. This was strengthened by the fact that Dr. Cherrington became associated with the State Department, the division of cultural relations, tied in with South American affairs.

With all these forces working for peace through education it was no surprise when Secretary Stettinius telegraphed to President Schlagle asking that two consultants on education be named to aid the American delegates to the Peace Conference long before the opening day at San Francisco. This development represented the first frontal recognition for education, and the leaders lost no time in seizing the opportunity.

For the past two years, the Educational Policies Committee of the N.E.A. waged a campaign for peace in which scores of conferences were held in various cities of the United States on the subject of "The People's Peace."

Now what has all this to do with what will be taught in the schools of Germany and Japan for the next 50 years? Only time will tell. At present the training in conquered territory is being administered by army authorities. The fact that education will have a voice in the international organization to keep the peace is a recognition of the part which schools may play everywhere, that they, too, have a responsibility for so teaching that in the years ahead children will understand that they are not being brought up to hate the people just across their borders to please the whims of some dictator. In that respect, the teachers' mission parallels that of the Church.



# The Development of the Modern School Board

L. E. Leipold, Ph.D.<sup>1</sup>

The responsibility for the management of the early American schools was placed in the hands of the towns and it was exercised by them either directly at town meetings or through special committees. When such committees were appointed, they were usually instructed at town meetings concerning the nature of their functions, and were in most cases discharged when their assigned duties were fulfilled.

Frequently, and especially as the towns increased in size, the selectmen were given the management of the schools. On some occasions special committees were appointed by them, the selectmen usually serving on these committees with their appointees. Such committees included among their membership the leading citizens, the ministers especially assuming positions of leadership in the affairs of the schools.

In many cities the management of the schools was assigned to the civic authorities by the municipal charter, a situation which prevailed in some places through the nineteenth century. In such instances the city council usually replaced the town meeting in assuming direct responsibility for the management of the schools. This control by the city council extended into the new West and was a jealously guarded prerogative of the civic authorities. Even after special school committees came into general usage, the municipal authorities retained the major controls and exercised them regularly.

## Early Permissive Legislation

An important step in the evolution of the school board came when the state passed permissive laws sanctioning, tacitly if not expressly, the creation of school committees which previously had been responsible to municipal authorities. The first of these laws, passed in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, was enacted in the year 1789. It dealt with the certification and inspection of teachers, placing the responsibility for these duties jointly upon the selectmen and each town's ministers. However, it was left optional whether the school-committee members or the selectmen were to perform the duty, thus giving the existing committees their first recognition under state law.

This interesting section of the Massachusetts act read in part: "It shall be the duty of the minister or ministers of the gospel and the selectmen (or such other persons as shall be specifically chosen by each town or district for that purpose) of the several towns or districts to use . . . their best endeavors . . . that the youth . . . do regularly attend the schools. . . ."

Firmly established precedent supported the

<sup>1</sup>Minneapolis, Minn.

provisions of this law. It was recognition on the part of the state of a situation which already existed on a wide scale throughout the commonwealth. While vague and indirect, it nevertheless was a constructive move in the right direction and exerted a great influence on administrative practices in the state. It tended to establish a certain uniformity of procedure which was officially recognized in 1826 when a legislative act established the school committee as a permanent part of the state's school system.

## Specific Legislation of 1826 and 1827

The act of 1826 required each town to provide a school committee of at least five persons whose duty it would be to take general charge of the public schools. Specific functions given to the committee included the certifying and inspecting of teachers and the prescribing of school textbooks. An annual report was thereafter to be made to the secretary of the commonwealth.

The next year an elaborate law was passed, superseding the one of the previous year and providing at great length the details of school management and control. The most important feature of the law was the requirement that the towns were to elect prudential committeemen from each district in the town who were given the mandate to provide school facilities for the children and to select school teachers to instruct them. Penalties were provided for the towns which failed to abide by the provisions of the law.

In this law of 1827 there was, therefore, provided a specialized means for the management of the schools, almost two centuries after the establishment of the first school within the borders of the commonwealth, and the school committee became a legally recognized and integral part of the school system. It marked the end of one era and the beginning of a new one. Henceforth the members of the boards of education were in truth to be agents of the state acting within the confines of the local community. This duality of responsibility in effect served to advance the over-all educational interests of the state, while preserving those of the local area. It was an educational expedient, unique and effective. It exists today throughout the length and breadth of the United States, and, if modifications are now in the offing, they are due not so much to weaknesses within the system as they are to changing external conditions.

The recognition of the board of education as an agency of the state did not uniformize the educational organizational procedures of the nation. A century after the Massachusetts law of 1827 was passed, a variety of practices was still in existence, all continuing with the sanction of the state and differing fundamentally

in type. This was due largely to the philosophies which have guided the state legislatures when they enacted into law their individual beliefs.

## Evolution of Financial Control

In financial matters, too, the pattern which slowly took shape now reveals itself clearly in retrospect.

The early New England schools were supported largely by "rate bills," which provided for a per capita tax on the parents of the children who attended the schools. Direct appropriations, proceeds of land endowments, license receipts, penalties, and even lottery proceeds contributed to their support. Universal, free, tax-supported schools did not develop until several decades of the nineteenth century had passed. Many more years went by before the principle that the wealth of the whole state should be taxed to educate the children of the state was generally accepted.

Permissive laws first were passed, granting school authorities the right to tax certain properties within the district for school purposes. These voluntary taxes were placed generally upon the property of the parents who had children in schools. The next step, granting the school authorities the right to tax all properties of the district for educational purposes, paved the way for universal compulsory taxation.

The next step was the granting of state aids to schools which had met certain requirements established by the state. These moneys usually were secured by means of a state tax or appropriation, and enabled the state to withhold its aids until the local unit had raised its full share of the compulsory tax on a universal basis.

## Compulsory Taxes

Finally, the next and logical step was taken when compulsory local taxes were levied. Connecticut in 1839 granted complete local autonomy in fiscal matters, though for almost a half century previous to that year the districts had been given permission to levy and to collect taxes to support their schools.

Massachusetts as early as 1800 legalized the organization of local districts and gave them the power to levy and collect school taxes. A quarter of a century later the commonwealth granted the towns complete local autonomy in school matters.

The responsibility for providing adequate school buildings to house the pupils and sufficient revenue to operate the plants were two functions frequently assigned to the city councils. The boards of education might request such funds, but the city councils decided whether or not the supplications were to be granted. The unsatisfactory conditions which

this system caused did much to hasten the day when boards of education were no longer dependent upon city councils for their fiscal needs.

In Cleveland, Ohio, the city council was early given the duty of providing both buildings and money to maintain a common school system. The board of education estimated the financial needs of the schools for the coming year and the city council levied taxes to raise the moneys—or such part as the councilmen deemed best. The council fixed school district boundaries and purchased building sites. The council of the city of Cincinnati was likewise empowered to raise money for school purposes through taxation and in addition to determine the beginning and the ending of the school year, fix vacation days, examine pupils, and receive the reports of the board of education at the end of each three-month period. In 1873 a law was passed by the Ohio legislature which abolished such council controls and gave sole authority to boards of education to regulate the affairs of the schools.

#### Building Control in City Councils

The Milwaukee schools were handicapped for several decades by the allocation of building control to the city council. All school buildings and sites were the property of the city. Petition by the board of education was the only method of securing needed buildings or supplies. It was not until after the beginning of the present century (1905) that a state law gave the board of school directors the power to erect buildings.

Previous to the year 1906 the city council of Philadelphia had complete control over the financial affairs of the city schools, and not until 1911 was full autonomy secured by the board of education.

The power of the city councils to act favorably or otherwise on school-board-financial requests often resulted in direct hardships on the part of the schools. The school board in the city of Rochester in 1875 voted to close the schools because the council failed to appropriate sufficient money to maintain them. The latter body stood adamant and it was only when a citizen of the city advanced the tidy sum of \$85,000 that the board voted to keep open the schools. As late as 1925 the city council of Louisville cut \$103,000 from the amount requested by the board of education.

It was such situations as these that eventually brought about the financial independence of the school systems of America from the local municipalities.

#### The Big Boards of City Schools

The chief reason for the huge size to which boards of education once grew was the conviction that each ward or district must have its own representation if neighborhood needs were to be adequately met. The earliest recognized educational unit was the town. However, in order to provide more ready access to such educational opportunities as were then available, the district system came into being. These districts gained legal standing by state

law. Connecticut, for example, as early as 1766 granted town authorities permission to subdivide the towns, establishing the districts as educational units. It was customary to allow each school district to have its own committee, and as the size of cities increased, the number of committeemen soared to great heights. With the establishment of a city school committee, known as the board of education, that body became patterned after the municipal organization and "district" committeemen became ward representatives, with all of the abuses of local politics attached to the municipal organization. Large boards were soon the rule. Annual election of board members by wards almost precluded the possibility of providing a continuing organization with a long-term program, and wards, which were unequal in size and in educational needs but which nevertheless had equal representation on the school board, provided a system unsatisfactory both in nature and in results effected. New York had a central board of 21 members and in addition had 5 mayor-appointed inspectors for each of the 35 inspection districts into which the city was divided. Brooklyn had a board of 45 members and, in addition, a committee of 3 members for each school. Milwaukee's 36 members were appointed by the aldermen by wards; Cincinnati's 30 members were elected but each one represented one of the 30 wards into which the city was divided. Pittsburgh was divided into districts and the members of the district committees elected the 37 members of the central board.

Philadelphia holds the all-time record for size of school boards, for at one time there were 444 members of boards of education in the city! Each ward elected 12 board members, and the members of the board of public education were appointed from the ward boards. The central board conducted most of the business of the schools and had power of review over the acts of the ward directors.

#### City-Wide Boards Reduced in Size

Boston prior to 1855 had 217 members on its boards of education. In that year the boards for primary schools were abolished by law. When ward representation was abolished in 1875, the board had 116 members. For the next three decades its membership was limited to 24 members elected (after 1885) at large. Since 1906 the board has consisted of five members elected at large.

Providence in 1865 had 45 school committeemen, all but three being elected by wards. As the city increased in size, the number of its wards grew, until the board numbered 63 members in 1886. A law passed in 1889 resulted in a reduction in size to 33, and in 1925 it was further reduced to seven members.

Detroit's board of education consisted of 20 members elected by wards as early as 1865. Various attempts were made to reduce the size of the body, but it was not until 1912 that the state legislature granted to the people of that city the privilege of determining for themselves the size of their school board and the bases of representation. The people promptly voted to abolish ward representation, substituting for

that device election of seven members at large.

The Rochester, N. Y., board of education was elected by wards for more than a half century (1841 to 1899). At the end of the century election at large was instituted, five members being elected for four-year terms.

Bitter fights frequently preceded the change from ward representation to election at large and from large-size to small-size boards. The legislatures, city councils, newspapers, and the citizenry all participated. Cries of "politics" were heard in practically every city. Frequently compromises were effected, and some cities elected some members by wards and some at large. Columbus prior to 1913 resorted to such a plan, as did Providence in 1925.

#### Small Boards Prevail

Since the latter half of the nineteenth century there has been a distinct tendency away from ward representation toward election at large, with a resulting decrease in the size of boards of education. At the beginning of the present century, one student of education found that the average board was composed of 14.2 members. This decreased in 1917 to 10.5 and in 1927 to 8.2.

Ten years later an average size of 7.9 was found to exist in cities of over 100,000 population. A range of 3 to 21 members was found. These board members served an average term of four years and were generally elected at large.

While the struggle for autonomy was often prolonged and bitter, here and there a courageous board of education took full cognizance of the situation and stated its position clearly and with vigor. For example, when in Richmond, Va., the city fathers in 1873 passed a resolution requesting the school board to explain certain of its actions to which the council took exception, the board replied pointedly that the council did not have the authority to make such a request and stated further that "the school board . . . is not responsible to your honorable body, and the board submits that the inexpediency of such an accountability is as manifest as its illegality." Such action as this was the exception, however, rather than the rule.

America's boards of education are today recognized as agencies of the state and are subject no longer to municipal authorities. Freedom to act within limits determined by state legislators has replaced restrictive control by civic agents. Boards are small in size; the members are elected at large, and terms of office are long enough to provide a fairly adequate degree of continuity to the programs.

The unspecialized nature of school administration which prevailed during the first half of the nineteenth century has now matured into a highly specialized service. The changes came in most cases slowly, frequently only after bitter struggles against tradition and entrenched interests. Here and there vestigial remnants may still be seen, reminders of the days when boards of education were not autonomous bodies to whom were entrusted the complicated affairs with which our modern school boards are called upon to cope.



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# Explaining Building Needs to the Public . . . Graphically

L. R. Canfield<sup>1</sup>



Fig. 1

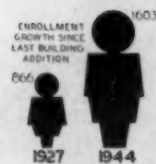


Fig. 5

Who wants to listen to or read a lot of statistics? Not many people. But a lot of them will pay attention to a picture which depicts the facts in A-B-C fashion.

This thought that "the eye is a better pupil and more willing than the ear" has guided the board of education of South Euclid—Lyndhurst, Ohio, in interpreting its problems of building needs to the public.

A comprehensive survey of population and enrollment trends, made for the board by Mr. G. E. Irons, Commissioner of School Housing and Boundaries of the Cleveland Schools, provided an adequate supply of convincing statistics. Mr. Irons' report contains about 40 pages of data analyzing the trends and giving a conservative estimate of building needs up to 1955.

The problem was to boil down the survey story, to convert the high-light data into a

<sup>1</sup>Member of the Board of Education, South Euclid—Lyndhurst School District, South Euclid, Ohio.

series of picture graphs and to draw these charts. The presentation requires these 11 charts:

No. 1. Comparison of population of the school district for 1910 and 1944. This shows a midget, representing 1013 people standing beside a giant of 11,500 people.

No. 2. Actual home construction by years from 1930 to 1944 and estimated homes from then to 1950, with interpretation in terms of new population, based on 3.6 people per home.

No. 3. Population curve from 1910 to 1990, approximate year of "population ceiling." This graph, based on experiences of many other communities, double-checks the method employed in No. 2.

No. 4. Comparison of neighboring communities as to population, area, and extent of development.

No. 5. Comparison of 1944 total enrollment of 1603 to 1927 enrollment of 866. Last building addition was in 1927.

No. 6. Three enrollment curves for K to 6, 7 to 9, 10 to 12—for 1935 to 1955. Estimated enrollments based on population forecasts.

No. 7. Births for 1933, 1940, and 1942 to show effect of new, young families on school demands.

No. 8. Map of school district showing location of three present elementary school buildings and six additional school lots. Gives present enrollment and possible ultimate enrollment of each of the subdivisions.

No. 9. Capacity of present four buildings (three elementary and one junior-senior high) and present enrollment. Small difference in each case indicates reserve for growth.

No. 10. Summary chart showing additional classrooms to be needed by 1950 and by 1955 for K to 6, 7 to 9 and 10 to 12. The totals are 21 by 1950 and 41 by 1955.

No. 11. Shows the financial ability of the district. One pile of dollars represents the

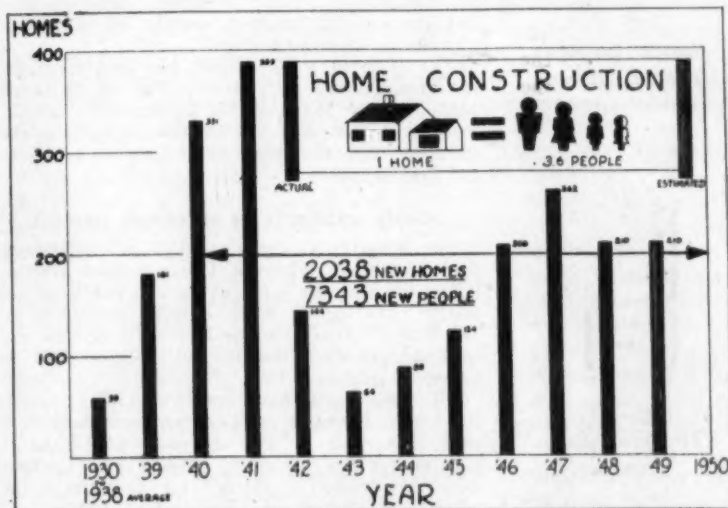


Fig. 2. Home construction will require new schools.

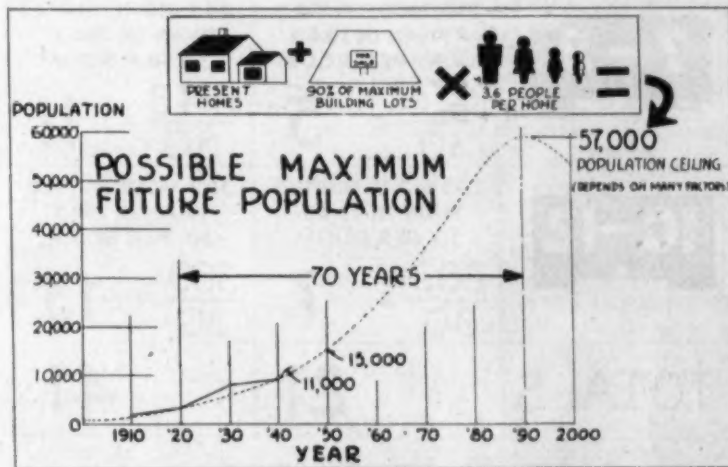


Fig. 3. An estimate of the probable growth.

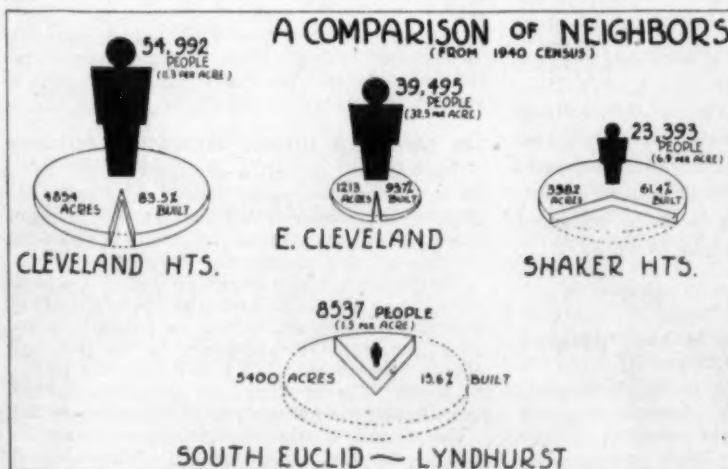


Fig. 4. A comparison with neighbors helps.

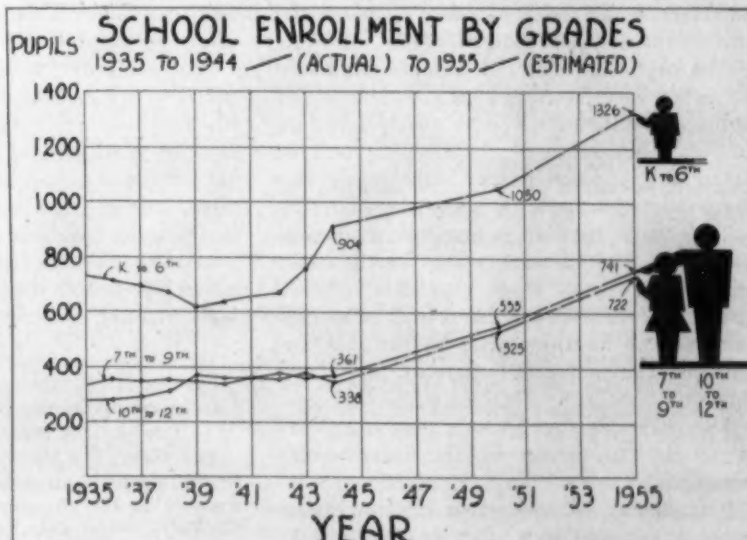


Fig. 6. Levels of the needed school space.

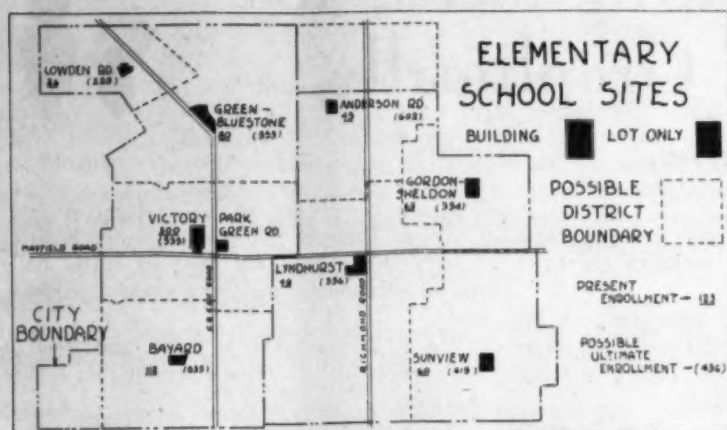


Fig. 8. Where the buildings are to be located.

NEW CLASSROOMS NEEDED		
FOR GRADES	BY 1950	BY 1955
<b>K-6</b>	296 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -35 PER ROOM $\frac{296}{35} = 9$	572 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -35 PER ROOM $\frac{572}{35} = 17$
<b>7-9</b>	146 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -30 PER ROOM $\frac{146}{30} = 5$	343 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -30 PER ROOM $\frac{343}{30} = 11$
<b>10-12</b>	203 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -30 PER ROOM $\frac{203}{30} = 7$	389 MORE PUPILS THAN IN 1943 -30 PER ROOM $\frac{389}{30} = 13$
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>41</b>

Fig. 10. The rooms needed.

\$800,000 bonded indebtedness of 1930; another that of the \$275,000 debt of 1944.

The charts were drawn on heavy cardboard, 30 inches wide, 24 inches high, with most lettering of sufficient size to be visible for about 50 feet. They are used in this form for talks before P.T.A. meetings and civic groups with the presentation made by a board member.

They have been reproduced in an 8-page, 6 by 9-in. bulletin with a concise discussion of the high lights of the survey. Sufficient quantity of this survey digest was printed to hand out at meetings prior to the talk and for distribution to all parents of school children.

The charts are being used, too, in a series of articles to appear in the local weekly newspaper.

It is planned to supplement this foundation in public relations with other projects of education, publicity, and promotion between now

and next November when the issue will be presented to the electorate.

A meeting of 50 civic leaders was held recently to organize a Citizens School Committee which will conduct the campaign activity—most of which will occur in an intensive manner for about six weeks prior to the election. Since a 65 per cent majority vote is required in Ohio for approval of school-building-bond issues, considerable effort will be made to acquaint the people with the facts, to get them registered and to get them out to vote.

#### A FOLLOW-UP PROGRAM TO RETAIN STUDENTS IN HIGH SCHOOL

The Peoria Heights School, at Peoria Heights, Ill., is located in a nonhigh school district but adjacent to the city of Peoria, where the pupils regularly attend the Peoria High School. The school has an enrollment of 700 pupils, and graduates about 70 pupils each year. A study con-

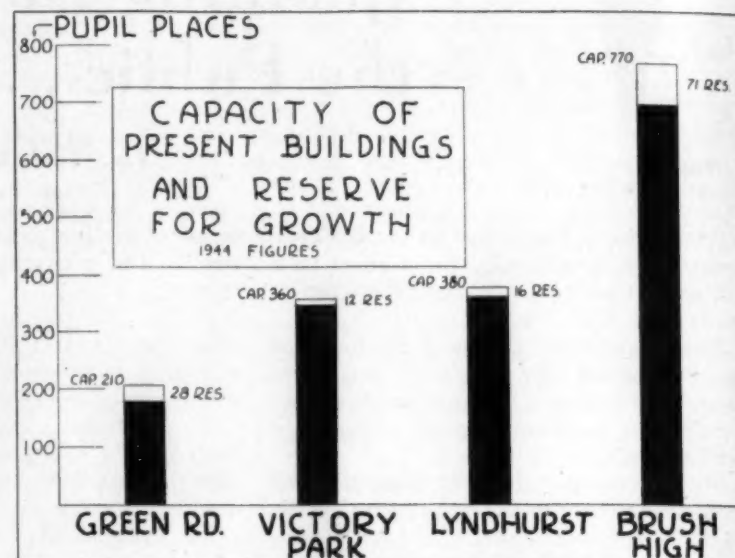


Fig. 9. No present reserve for growth.



Fig. 7. More babies mean more school space.

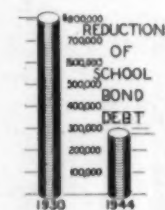


Fig. 11. The financial picture.

ducted by the school faculty, under the direction of Supt. A. L. Ohlman, had indicated that as many as 40 per cent of those entering the high school failed to continue and attain graduation in spite of excellent preparation for high school work.

Superintendent Ohlman, as a remedy, prepared a follow-up program with the purpose of holding students of the district in high school. Explorer scouts and girl reserves were assigned as sponsors for graduating pupils. Periodic communications to former pupils pointed out the advantages of completing their education.

The program, it is believed, has been successful in accomplishing its purpose. The school board feels that the follow-up of students by the elementary school staff has produced results in the direction of eliminating many "dropouts" from the high school.

#### SCHOOL PROGRESS IN WHEATON, ILLINOIS

The Wheaton Community High School District board and the Wheaton Grade School District board have begun a survey of the public school system. The survey which is being conducted by Dr. Wm. C. Reavis, of the University of Chicago, will be completed shortly and a report will be issued in January, 1946.

The two boards have approved a plan, calling for salary increases of \$300 per year beginning with September 1. The increases will make it possible for the boards to employ new teachers with five years' experience for the grades, at salaries of \$1,800, and high school teachers at \$1,980. Teachers who have been employed in the schools several years will be raised to a maximum of \$2,400 for the grades, and \$2,700 for the high school.

The community high school board has employed an architect to begin plans for a postwar school-building program. The construction work will be started soon after the end of the war.

#### THE SANDWICH SUMMER RECREATION PROGRAM

The board of education of Sandwich, Ill., under the auspices of the public schools, the Rotary, the chamber of commerce, and the churches, is maintaining a full-time summer recreation program for children of ages 8 through 14.

The program which began on July 1 continues for eight weeks. The activities include softball, basketball, volleyball, games, handicraft, swimming, dancing, stunts, open-air movies, and mass singing. The program, it is believed, has proved its worth. The problems in delinquency which occur during the summer months are disappearing.

The board is also maintaining a corrective speech program, which includes children in all grades. It is being conducted under the direction of a special trained teacher.



# Military Surplus Goods for Schools

## A Summary of Regulations

The orderly disposal of the vast accumulation of military surpluses presents a problem of major importance to the government. The speed with which our manufacturing industries are able to reconvert to peacetime production may well be increased or retarded by the solution of this problem. The available markets for American-made products can be definitely affected by the manner in which surpluses are merchandised. In the same manner our educational institutions, faced as they are with the task of introducing new-found methods and types of training in keeping with the times, can be materially aided by the acquisition of surpluses without increased costs to taxpayers. Recognition of the importance of the problem has been indicated in that a bill known as the Surplus Property Bill has been made a law, setting up a mechanism for handling all types of surplus commodities that now exist or may become available in the future.

The Surplus Property Act of 1944 has as its objective . . . to facilitate and regulate the orderly disposal of surpluses so as . . . and here are listed twenty statements of what the law is intended to do. The objectives listed are all aimed as aids to the re-establishment of our peacetime economy and to prevent business abuses that might result unless curbed.

The planned organization for the disposal of surpluses is established by the terms of the law with power to deputize authority for handling certain commodities. Section 5 (a) states: "There is hereby established in the Office of War Mobilization, and, in its successor, a Surplus Property Board, which shall consist of three members appointed by the President. . . ." Paragraph (B) "The Board shall within the limits of the funds which may be made available, appoint and fix compensation of such officers and employees, and make such expenditures for supplies, facilities, and services, as may be necessary to carry out its function. . . ."

In keeping with these provisions the board has already been appointed by the president and rather than establish a large central agency has issued S. P. R. Regulation No. 2 which designates the problem of disposal to four agencies, already in existence, which have means established and a thorough knowledge of the items assigned to them. The commodities are distributed as follows:

### Who Has What

*Consumer goods are assigned to the U. S. Department of Commerce, Office of Surplus Property.* This class of items includes wood, paper, textiles, rubber; special industrial machinery, especially agricultural, automotive, and construction; office machinery, plumbing and heating, air conditioning, photographic materials, optical, scientific instruments, drugs, apparel, footwear as well as other sundry items.

*Capital and producers goods including aviation equipment are assigned to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation.* Classes of items included under this agency include raw materials of all types for production purposes, in-

dustrial plants, machine tools, aircraft and aircraft equipment, among others.

*Ships and maritime property*—the classification is descriptive—are to be disposed of by the United States Maritime Commission.

*Agricultural commodities and food*, but excluding agricultural machinery, are to be disposed of by the War Food Administration of the Department of Agriculture.

### Important Regulation No. 2

The regulation S. P. B. No. 2 lists all the items under disposal jurisdiction to the various agencies and should be considered as the guide at present for procurement.

The Surplus Property Act designed as it is for aiding the nation's return to peacetime economy specifically provides for educational institutions participation in surplus disposal in clearly defined statements and preferential treatment of items the institutions may be interested in procuring. Under "Definition of terms" in the law, Section 3 states, "The term tax supported institution, means any scientific, literary, educational, public health, or public welfare institution which is supported in whole or in part through the use of funds derived from taxation by the United States, or by any state or political subdivision thereof." This definition is further used under Section B under the heading of "Disposal to Local Governments and Non-Profit Institutions." This section gives the Surplus Property Board the authority "to prescribe regulations for the disposal to tax supported and nonprofit institutions and shall determine on the basis of need what transfer shall be made."

Included in Section 13 are three important regulations established that are pertinent to schools. Paragraph 1-A states: "Surplus property that is appropriate for schools, classroom, or other educational use may be sold or leased to the states, their political subdivisions and instrumentalities and tax supported educational institutions, and to other non-profit educational institutions which have been held exempt from taxation under Section 101 (c) of the Internal Revenue Code." Thus the bill provides not only a means for purchase, but for leasing items or materials that may be too costly for outright purchase.

Paragraph C of this section further provides for a method of determining costs for surplus items or materials. It states that "In fixing the sale of lease value of property to be disposed of . . . the Board shall take into consideration any benefit which has accrued or may accrue to the United States from the use of such property by any State, political subdivision, instrumentality or institutions." Paragraph C-2 states further: "Surplus Property shall be disposed of so as to afford public and governmental institutions, non-profit or tax-supported educational institutions, charitable and eleemosynary institutions, non-profit or tax-supported hospitals and similar institutions . . . an opportunity to fulfill, in the public interest, their legitimate needs."

From the above quotations from the act it can be clearly seen that schools particularly are well written in and that methods should

be set up whereby they may procure surpluses to promote educational programs for the good of the nation. Under the act no type of educational enterprise is excluded. Certain regulations outlining the general method of procurement by educational institutions, among others, are also outlined in SPB Regulation No. 2. The priority established for educational institutions is also outlined in this regulation. Briefly, these are the pertinent factors.

All surpluses will be immediately reported to the designated disposal agency as they become available. Each 30 days the disposal agency shall give "wide public notice of such categories and items of surplus property . . . as they are available for disposal at the respective regional disposal offices of the disposal agency. The disposal agencies also shall seek the aid and co-operation of associations, and organizations of representatives of state and local governments in publicizing such notices." This means in effect that any state department or local board of education can, and should if interested, contact the regional offices set up for surplus disposal and ask to be placed on the list for receiving disposal notices.

### Priorities and Their Limits

Priorities and time limits for exercising priority rights are set forth in SPB Regulation No. 2. Government agencies have first call—"shall for a period of 18 days following notice of its availability . . . have a priority to acquire such property for their use. . . ."

The regulations provided for estimates to be submitted so as to indicate possible markets existing in priority groups state: "Each state and local government desiring to qualify under this regulation shall file a statement of its needs with appropriate offices of the disposal agencies. . . ." Such statements of needs "may be amended from time to time by filing substitute reports or statements, and each report and statement, and substitute report and statement shall expire 6 months from its date." These reports or estimates are important for the regulation provided that "each disposal agency shall give to . . . state and local governments which shall have filed reports or statements of needs . . . written notice of surplus property available for disposal within the area in which they are located: Provided, that such notice to any . . . state or local government may be restricted to these classes of surplus property which the . . . state or local government shall have set forth in its report or statement of needs. Surplus property may be described in such notices of availability by use of the terms and code numbers contained in the "Standard Commodity Classification" (U. S. Government Printing Office).

The regulation further establishes a priority period for state and local governments that have met the requirement of submitted statements of need as, ". . . shall for a period of 12 days from the date of expiration of the period of priority of Government Agencies . . . have a priority to acquire any such surplus property for their use, whether or not it is included in their statements of needs."

"Each of the foregoing priorities shall lapse upon the expiration of the period of such priority."

The regulation goes on further to describe how orders shall all be listed as received and also states that in the event claimants with the same priority rights shall request items in quantities larger than available at the time the



### The Pekin Community High School Board of Education in Session

The Pekin Community High School board of education, at Pekin, Ill., consists of (left to right) George B. Stolley; Paul Massey; Louis H. Hackler; I. E. Wilson, president; Lewis S. Doren; Allen R. Farmer, secretary. The members have had from two to sixteen years' experience.

The board is making plans for the erection of an addition to the high school, to begin when materials and labor are available. The present enrollment of the school is 1,200, and it is estimated that the growth in local population will raise the student body to 1,800 by 1952. The addition to the building is planned to provide additional classroom space and rooms for new services.

The Pekin Community High School board of education is committed to the policy of representing the interests of all the children, and in carrying out its purpose considers all school matters as a committee of the whole. It holds its executive officer responsible and accountable for the administration and supervision of the educational program. Mr. A. G. Haussler is principal.

board is authorized to determine which of the claimants shall receive the items in question and report such findings to the disposal agency. This determination shall be considered final.

#### Regulation No. 4

Various other regulations have been issued only one of which is directly applicable to schools generally. This is SPB Regulation 4, which deals with "Disposal of Surplus Aeronautical Property to Educational Institutions for Non-flight Use." This regulation presents a list of items with an arbitrary disposed value for nonflight educational uses. The lists include instruments at prices far below costs, really token amounts. These items are in all degrees of condition and subject to the following:

A. Charges for such property shall be the disposal cost as listed on Exhibit "A" opposite each type of such property.

B. Such property shall be prepared for shipment by the agency in actual possession and delivered to the buyer at the location of the property or to a carrier at a place agreed upon with the buyer. Shipment shall be on commercial bill of lading, charges "collect."

C. The buyer shall file with the disposal agency a certificate under oath duly notarized that such buyer is an educational institution, that the property is being acquired to be used only for non-flight instructional, research, or experimental purposes, that it will not be used for any flight purposes, and that property will be disposed of only as scrap and then only after it shall have been rendered completely unfit and useless except for its basic material content.

This completes the surplus picture to date regarding educational institutions and their position and rights under the Surplus Property Act and issued regulations. The following suggest a digest of what is probably essential for

any school, large or small, to do in order to participate:

1. Obtain copies of all regulations from your regional disposal agencies.

2. List the items that may be of interest to your school, not necessarily the amounts, but rather the complete list of items.

3. Determine if a larger grouping is not possible, that is, entire city, county, or even a state, and establish a central shipping address.

4. Be prepared to place your order, or bid as is the case, as soon as lists are available, so that your relative priority privileges may be exercised.

5. Have funds available for surpluses as they may be available or shipped.

6. If possible, establish a method whereby someone can inspect available offerings. This is important as surpluses will be offered in all classes of condition.

7. Have a copy of "Standard Commodity Classification" available to check exact description of items by code numbers as given.

8. Study your needs carefully with the understanding that the first offering of an item may be either the best or worst of a quantity of these items that may be offered later.

9. Have a sound basis for all bids made and be prepared to exercise them if successful.

10. Remember that available surpluses will probably include items valuable for every branch of your school or system and that intelligent use of them can vastly increase your facilities and offerings at a relatively small cost.

#### MR. MORELAND ELECTED AT HOUSTON, TEXAS

William Earnest Moreland, who has been serving as acting superintendent of the Houston, Tex., public schools since Dr. E. E. Oberholtzer resigned April 1, to become president of the University of Houston, has been named by the school board to succeed Dr. Oberholtzer. The contract is for two years at a salary of \$11,000 annually.

The selection was made after many closed conferences, during which time more than one hundred applications from Texas, as well as other

states, were considered, the list narrowing down to five.

Mr. Moreland, who has been in the Houston school system since 1924, was born in Gatesville, Tex., December 31, 1895. After graduating from the high school of his home town, he attended North Texas Teacher's College at Denton, and Peabody College at Nashville, Tenn.

In 1917 he enlisted in the army and served overseas with a heavy artillery unit, going into Germany with the Army of Occupation following the Armistice. There he attended two colleges set up for occupational forces. After two years he returned to Texas and began his teaching experience as superintendent of the schools at Ireland. In 1922 he went to Bay City as high school principal. Three years later he came to Houston and served one year as assistant to Dr. Oberholtzer, then 11 years as principal of Johnson High School. In 1936 he was selected to fill the newly created position of deputy superintendent in charge of personnel in the Houston schools, a position he has held ever since. He received his master of arts degree from Columbia University in 1935, after attending summer sessions.

Tall, quiet, soft spoken, the new superintendent is active in civic, welfare, and church affairs as well as in educational movements. The nearly three thousand school employees in the school system were unanimous in their endorsement of the board's choice.

#### A UNIQUE TASK

The Vocational Education Department of the Chicago school system has been selected to supply 3000 girls to sort 160,000,000 war bond coupons which have been redeemed by the U. S. Treasury and which must be finally placed in the government records.

Under the supervision of teachers, the girls work in six Chicago high schools until the job has been completed. Each of the girls will receive \$146 per month pay, and the supervisors will be compensated at the rate of \$186 per month.

The Chicago high school buildings were recently used to house soldiers on special duty during the truck drivers' strike.



# Teachers Depend Upon the Administrator for Adequate Salaries

Harold Spears<sup>1</sup>

The school administrator who steps into a new and strange school situation goes through a period of orientation in which he gradually takes inventory of many aspects of the various areas of school operation, such as the welfare of teachers, the adequacy of local revenues, the policies of recruiting and paying the staff, the adequacy of the curriculum, the school plant, the relationships of school and community, the co-ordination of the school program with the activities of other recreational and educational agencies, etc.

As he thus takes stock of what is on hand, he goes behind the outward aspects of the situation and rightly includes as a significant part of his inventory the attitudes of the members of the staff, of the board of education, patrons, and laymen. As he operates in any one of the natural areas of his work, he brings to bear upon the existing situation his professional training and experience, gradually advancing the interests of the learning situation through an intricate series of co-operative administrative steps that represent compromise and finesse rather than decree and blunt action.

Regardless of what may be pointed out as disadvantages, the administrator who comes into a school situation from the outside has the advantage of a fresh and unbiased outlook of local practices and personalities. He need not know that the social and intellectual segregation practiced in home-room grouping supposedly had its origin in an attempt to play up to homes that might send their children to private schools. He need not know which of the teachers have been looked upon with suspicion because of their outlook upon life and liberal politics. He need not know that teachers were encouraged not to divulge their salaries to their colleagues. He need not know that the board had decided without an adequate survey that the next building that would be constructed would be a gymnasium.

No, he need not be tied to past patterns. Thanks to his ignorance, he can size up the present learning situation, seeing both personalities and practices from the standpoint of adequacy and inadequacy. If the hour period seems more educationally sound than the forty-minute one, he need not be thwarted by the statement of a veteran teacher, "Yes, we tried that one year and it didn't work."

Not having grown up with the school, the new administrator missed some of the growing pains recalled by some of the teachers and board members who nursed the school along twenty or twenty-five years ago. And it is true that he missed some of the school's earlier glories, glories that still color present practices which should be serving a new generation of students in a changing community. On the

other hand, he has the advantage of a clearer vision in working ahead to the school's maximum service to its society.

The professionally minded school administrator has come to be one who has a service to render to his profession, either in administering the people's schools or in training the teachers for them. His professional outlook enables him to go into a new school situation not as one clutching for a straw of security, but as an educational practitioner who feels assurance about his honest approach to each situation—an assurance in the profession rather than in the position he holds at the moment.

## A New Administrator in School A

This article will treat the experiences of an administrator serving three years for a school. Upon entrance into this situation in September, 1941, he found a township high school of 1200 students, a board of 5 members, a faculty of 55, and the proportionate number of custodial and cafeteria workers. He served as both principal and superintendent of the school. His experiences in finding a house led him to appreciate that living costs, especially housing, were extremely high, and that the annual differential of six or seven hundred dollars in living costs was not unusual for the new teacher coming from a small midwest community of the type from which so many of the teachers were recruited. He experienced early the housing situation that was soon to be called to his attention by one teacher after another.

Among the superintendent's new duties, teacher welfare seemed a natural point of attention. The budget and school accounts revealed a disconcerting and ever mounting deficit in the school district's educational fund. By state regulation, the school revenue is allocated to two separate accounts, the building and the educational funds. Here the local educational rate was too low to carry the needs in that area of operation, the big item being the salary account. The tax limit for the educational fund, as set by the state, is \$1.50 per \$100 of assessed valuation, but each local school district has to get its own limit set within the \$1.50 by vote of the people. This district for years had been operating with a \$1 limit.

The gradual but sharp decrease in the total real-estate values and in the assessed valuations in the district had reduced the revenue to the point where the levy was not sufficient—an old story in the struggle for adequate school support. At the first board meeting that fall the administrator proposed that a special election be called to increase the school tax limit. Threatened increases in income taxes left little time for handling this local need. The campaign was crowded into three in-

tensive weeks, and at the election in November, 1941, the proposal to increase the educational rate limit from \$1 to \$1.50 carried by a vote of four to one.

Thus the way was cleared for the more intensive study of teachers' salaries and related welfare matters. There was apparent in the board a feeling of benevolent satisfaction about the school situation as a whole. This satisfaction was natural, since so many of the features of the picture reflected past action of the board members. Most of the five had served a number of three-year terms, one having served a quarter of a century and another almost as long. The administrator's more intensive study of the situation revealed:

1. No salary schedule existed. The board minutes revealed that the school had never operated under any definite schedule.

2. The hiring of teachers had been, in the main, individual acts leaning heavily toward bargaining.

3. The teachers were organized into a local Teachers Council, which looked to the administration for the nod of approval in most of its planning of activities.

4. Teachers wanting raises for the coming year would remain silent and trust to luck, or would individually, half apologetically, approach the administrator. Apparently salary practices had not been considered a matter for open discussion.

5. In the hiring of teachers, experience had been an insignificant factor in setting beginning salaries. This was strikingly revealed by a study of the teachers hired in the five or six years just prior to the year in question. Table 1 is a fairly accurate review of these cases:

TABLE 1. Disregard of Experience in Setting Salaries

Teacher	Prior teaching experience	Beginning salary here
1.....	0 years	\$1,500
2.....	0 years	\$1,500
3.....	5 years	\$1,700
4.....	5 years	\$1,800
5.....	5 years	\$2,200
6.....	6 years	\$1,650
7.....	7 years	\$2,300
8.....	8 years	\$2,000
9.....	8 years	\$2,300
10.....	10 years	\$2,400
11.....	11 years	\$1,800
12.....	12 years	\$2,200
13.....	12 years	\$1,900

6. To encourage the teachers to live within the school district, the board had deducted 5 per cent from the salary of each teacher who lived outside the district.

7. A regulation of long standing required each teacher to attend summer school every third summer. An allowance of \$100 was made to help pay expenses, and certain aids were given for winter study and foreign travel.

8. In the case of teachers employed before 1932, depression cuts had been made, and most of these salaries had not been restored.

9. No definite sick-leave benefits existed,

<sup>1</sup>Montclair, N. J., State Teachers College.

but the board was quite liberal in handling individual cases. Since no deductions were made for short periods of absence, the administrator had to determine when a case was of long enough duration to take to the board. The absence of definite policies indicated that the board had desired to handle such administrative detail, or that there had been administrative laxness in pushing through definite regulations.

10. That the welfare of teachers was taken for granted by the community was apparent in the unconcern about school voters' elections. There was usually no contest, and when a board member needed to file a new petition for re-election, it was not uncommon for the secretary of the board to secure the signatures of faculty members at school. Seldom would a school election attract 5 per cent of the voters. Usually but a handful came.

#### Moving Toward Better Teacher Welfare

The differential between the in- and out-of-district salary was the first policy approached, and the board approved the recommendation that the practice be set aside "for the duration."

The administrator who has been in a school only a few months, and who has no salary schedule or scale to help him, faces a real responsibility in making salary recommendations for the coming year. In preparing an honest recommendation during the first winter the writer made studies of salaries paid in the school. Some of these efforts led to nothing, but two proved revealing and suggested action.

**Spotting Salary and Service Range.** The first of these, which in turn suggested the second, was a mere spotting of each teacher on a chart according to present salary and years served in the school. Horizontally on the chart were the years of service, and vertically were the salaries. This spotting of 55 teachers revealed a big breach in practice between the teachers who had entered before 1932 and those who had entered later. The more favorable position of the older group could not be attributed to experience as revealed in Table 2.

TABLE 2. High Salary vs. Low Salary Teachers

Teacher group	Average total teaching experience	Average salary	Average salary of top group at 14 years of teaching experience
20 teachers at top of salary scale	25½ years	\$3,540	\$3,489
20 teachers at bottom of scale	9½ years	\$2,185	

The study pointed out that:

1. The school district had radically changed its salary practices since 1932, teachers entering since then being less favored than those entering prior to that time.

2. Since, in any typical salary plan a teacher reaches his maximum at between 15 and 20 years of service, the comparison of these two groups should really be a comparison of 9½ years experience for the one and about 17½ for the other. That the lower group was handled on a different plan was evident from the fact that they were but 8 years from the maximum and almost \$1,400 from it.

3. That the higher group had been more favor-

ably treated over the years was evident in that they averaged \$3,489 when they averaged only 14 years of experience.

When spring of the first year came and salary recommendations were presented to the board, these reflected the findings reviewed here, and moved in the direction of adjustments to correct discrepancies. While an increase of \$100 was recommended for all full-time teachers, to help ease mounting living costs, additional adjustments up to \$200 were recommended for teachers below \$2,800 in order to correct injustices. All recommendations were accepted.

#### Moving into the Second School Year

It was appreciated throughout this first year, and into even the second and third, that the school was being moved from all-out bargaining with prospective teachers, but that the school was in no position to swing to a fixed single-salary schedule.

**Establishing a Base Salary.** In addition to bolstering the salary schedule with adjustments for the staff, a definite step was made to stabilize the bottom end of the scale after raising it noticeably. Eleven new teachers were needed and five of those appointed had never taught. In their case a fixed salary of \$1,900 was recommended and accepted, and proportionate adjustment above this figure was made for each new teacher who came in with experience. In no case was a salary for incoming experienced teachers set out of line with those already on the staff. Such discrepancies became sore spots later on. There is nothing more essential to good schools than teacher morale, and their is no quicker way to establish poor morale than through the thoughtless manipulation of salaries.

Just as there is no excuse to place new teachers with experience in a position financially more favorable than those already on the staff, there is no reason not to respect that experience in the beginning salary. In the case of the 11 new teachers appointed for 1942-43, the stabilization of the bottom end of the scale and pay for experience meant approximately a \$5,000 increase in the total salary paid.

This is not to say that the district could not have secured these same people for a figure three to four thousand dollars lower than actually paid. It is to say that salaries were offered in accordance with what was considered a proper scale for the community. The professional school administrator stands for the welfare of the school. His handling of finances should respect this first obligation. This does not deny him the right to be efficient and thrifty in money matters, but it does deny him the right to take delight in driving close bargains with teachers. It denies him the right to a shrewd business deal to demonstrate to the board of education how valuable he is.

Once the new teachers had been appointed and the salaries set for 1942-43, a comparative study was made to determine exactly how far the school had moved in raising the salary policies to a better standard. Table 3 shows this comparison of the new year with the one just passed.

TABLE 3. Distribution of Salaries, Full-Time Teachers

	Staff of 1941-42		
	Lowest paid third	Middle third	Upper third
Average salary	\$2,172	\$2,882	\$3,588
Average number years taught	8	18	25

	Staff of 1942-43		
	Lowest paid third	Middle third	Upper third
Average salary	\$2,467	\$2,905	\$3,674
Average number years taught	5	16	25½

Thus, in spite of the lower average years of teaching experience of the two lower third groups, the salary standard for the groups had been raised. The teaching staff moved into the second year aware of administrative attention to their welfare; they more freely dropped into the office to discuss welfare matters, and discussed these in the lunchroom and recreation rooms. There was no longer the hush-hush approach to the salary question and to the mounting cost of living.

The second year brought a renewal of activity in the Teachers Council, and the faculty was encouraged to establish a salary committee. Within a very few weeks after its appointment this committee suggested a single-salary schedule, beginning at \$1,900 and running to \$3,850, by automatic annual increments of \$150. The committee was asked by the writer to what extent it had considered the troublesome issues of an ideal schedule, and to what extent the proposal represented faculty opinion.

A few days later a group of men came to ask if it were proper to hold a meeting to discuss the salary question. When asked, "Why just men?" they pointed out that the Council's committee was not representative of their interests, and that the married man's case was different from that of the single woman. Only one faculty man was not married. It was pointed out that such a meeting would develop factions, and would discourage the Council's study. The men then asked that the one committee be enlarged to represent all interests. This was done. The writer helped the committee to prepare a list of questions that might center attention upon common issues and in turn draw the individual teacher's attention from his own case to the common interest. These questions were as follow:

1. Should provision be made in a schedule for merit as a factor in advancement on the scale?
2. Should provision be made for extra duties, such as coaching that calls for work until seven o'clock on school days and additional hours on the week end?
3. Should provision be made for advanced training, such as a differential between the master's and the bachelor's degrees?
4. Should years of teaching service prior to coming to the local school be given full credit in the schedule?
5. Should differentials be provided for married men?
6. If the answer to 5 is "No," how will the schedule enable the administration to secure the men needed to balance the staff?
7. Should salary and duties taper off after a certain age, such as 60, on the ground that extra-class contributions will naturally taper off before then, and teachers will want to relinquish certain extra-class responsibilities, such as departmental headships, etc.?
8. Should experience, other than teaching, have



a place in determining advancement on the schedule?

Other related pertinent questions were:

1. Should the schedule provide for sabbatical leave?
2. Should it provide sick benefits?
3. Should the school discriminate against married women teachers?
4. Should local living costs be studied and tied into the planning?
5. Should the schedule encourage teachers to live in the school district?
6. Is it possible for the district to finance the schedule that is finally proposed?

It was emphasized that such a list was representative of many issues any study group would be obliged to treat. The increasing pressure of income taxes and other mounting living costs tended to keep much of the Council discussion on the personal rather than the professional plane. In time the salary committee asked the administrator for help and requested that he appear before the Council as discussion leader. In the meeting that followed the writer discussed (1) the basic problems that must be resolved before a salary policy is set; (2) the present salary practices of the school, and (3) a comparison of the school's practices with those of neighboring schools in comparable communities.<sup>2</sup>

By the use of large charts data like those in the present article were revealed. The faculty was taken into administrative confidence, and given its first over-all view of the school's salary situation. Naturally, the approach was that of the group, with personalities left out.

*Closing the Second School Year.* Thus as the second year neared its close, teachers came to appreciate more and more the difficulty which school boards and superintendents have in determining salary policies, and that even a group of 55 or 60 teachers, however much concerned about their financial welfare, cannot easily pick up an ideal salary policy that will reconcile their differences in situation and thought. The salary committee came to the conclusion that the administration was tackling the work with sincerity and promise, and that it would not be advisable to press for a strict schedule.

During this year the board hired an independent business-survey firm to study the local salaries in comparison with living costs in communities of the type from which the school had drawn its recent teachers. The data used were those which the Council had accumulated about the living expenditures of the staff. This \$500 piece of work verified the already apparent facts that the local community was one of exceedingly high living costs, that housing accommodations were scarce, and that the living costs differential for the married man was as high as \$600 above costs in the community from which he had come.

In making salary recommendations for the coming year, the writer proposed increments that again reflected two predominant factors in the teachers' situation: (1) the salary maladjustment of some teachers as compared with teachers of comparable situation, and (2) the

increasing costs of living. The recommendations opposed the easy way out of granting a blanket increase which would have merely perpetuated the inequalities existing. It was pointed out that due to the war situation the salary level of replacements had risen sharply, which meant that this same adjustment need be made for those already employed.

In this spring of 1943, treatment of the financial status of teachers, it was pointed out that Bureau of Labor statistics had shown that the cost of living as of October, 1942, was up 18 per cent over January, 1941, and that during that period the wages of the factory worker had gone up 28.4 per cent in hourly earnings and 44.5 per cent in weekly earnings. In contrast, the salaried teacher had suffered a sharp decrease in salary. The board passed the recommendations as presented.

### The Third School Year

The third year found the faculty still interested in the salary question, with waning interest in a fixed schedule and increasing confidence in the administrative handling of the salary policy. Through more efficient handling of staff positions and curriculum offerings, three vacant staff positions were not refilled. This did not mean an increase of pupils per class. In the two years as much as \$7,000 was thus gained for the benefit of the teachers as a whole. In addition, the salary account had been increased about 5 per cent in the two years. It was pointed out to the board of education that this increase was modest when compared with the sharp increase in living costs.

During this third year the main study consisted of an estimate of the salary account for the years to come. The increases adopted in the previous two years had aroused in the board members the natural feeling that the district might not be able to support the salary policy into which we had been moving. Even though there was no intention to establish a fixed salary schedule in his action, the principal had arrived in his own mind at a temporary pattern, a thing that was necessary in light of the past loose action and in light of the urgency of putting into order the salaries of the present staff. The main feature of this pattern were:

1. A definite salary of \$1,900 for a beginning teacher without experience
2. An increment of \$100 a year until \$3,500 is reached. (Because of the pressure of living costs, this increment had been near \$150 the past year.)
3. Advancements above \$3,500 dependent upon (1) significant extraclass contributions, (2) meritorious teaching, and (3) continued professional growth
4. A top salary of \$4,000 for classroom teachers, with \$4,200 for department heads
5. Additional increments for teachers in service to effect the proper adjustment of the teachers with this pattern
6. No discrimination among teaching fields
7. Full credit for experience gained prior to employment in this school
8. No bargaining with teacher candidates or with teachers already employed who might threaten to leave
9. Upon the retirement of a teacher at the designated age of 65, the replacement to be with a young teacher of much less experience, giving relief to the total salary account.
10. By means of a more rapid rise on the salary

scale, a recognition of the living costs of the married man with family

With this policy as a guide, it had been simple for the principal to study the cases of all teachers and to arrive at an estimated total salary account for twenty years to come. This information was presented to the board of education. Roughly, the variation from year to year was something like this:

Year	Increase or decrease in total salary account as compared to previous year
1944-45	+ \$4,150
1945-46	+ 4,150
1946-47	+ 3,500
1947-48	+ 3,200
1948-49	+ 2,900
1949-50	+ 1,300
1950-51	+ 1,000
1951-52	+ 500
1952-53	+ 2,000
1953-54	- 1,400
1954-55	- 1,600
1955-56	- 2,000
1956-57	- 200
1957-58	- 1,500
Etc.	- Etc.

It was pointed out that there are many uncertainties ahead, and that these might vary the estimates more than the trends indicated. The trend of an increasing salary account for ten years to come, followed by a steadily decreasing account for the next ten years to follow, was the picture. The first trend would be due to the fact that the teachers in the lower and middle salary groups were moving rightfully up to their maximum salaries. The second trend would be the result of the heavy retirement of top-salaried teachers beginning about 1953.

*Salary Recommendations the Third Year.* The salary recommendations for the third time reflected the previous approach of (1) adjustments for salaries out of line, and (2) increments for higher living costs. As before, no adjustment was made downward. The high costs of living justified increases for all, even though these increases were varied to meet the needed adjustments. For the first time in the three years, the board of education questioned the amount of the raises and wanted them scaled down. The principal had to submit another list, and even then the board member who had from the beginning questioned the emerging salary policy took the initiative to mark down some of the recommended salaries. As compared with the original recommendations, the salaries finally approved represented decreased increments for 32 teachers. However, the approved salaries meant an average increment of \$180 per teacher.

*Three-year Adjustments Accomplished.* Thus, in three years adjustments were accomplished that set practically every teacher in proper relationship with the others on the scale. The total salary increases for the three years, for the 39 full-time teachers who were in the school during all that period are as follows:

Number of teachers		Number of teachers	
\$850	1	\$480	1
800	2	450	4
750	4	400	7
700	2	350	3
600	3	300	5
550	1	250	2
500	3	200	1

(Concluded on page 62)

<sup>2</sup>This discussion was reported by the writer in the March and April, 1945, issues of SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL, in the article, "Some Principles and Problems in Determining a Salary Policy."



The High School End of the Machine Shop has small machines.

# The Ironwood Manual Training School

*Arthur E. Erickson*<sup>1</sup>

In any story of recent progress in vocational education in Ironwood, early history is important. Vocational training was established in the schools on a sizable scale in 1907. At that time a complete curriculum was worked out and a separate shop building was erected to house the courses, under the name "The Ironwood Manual Training School." The name is

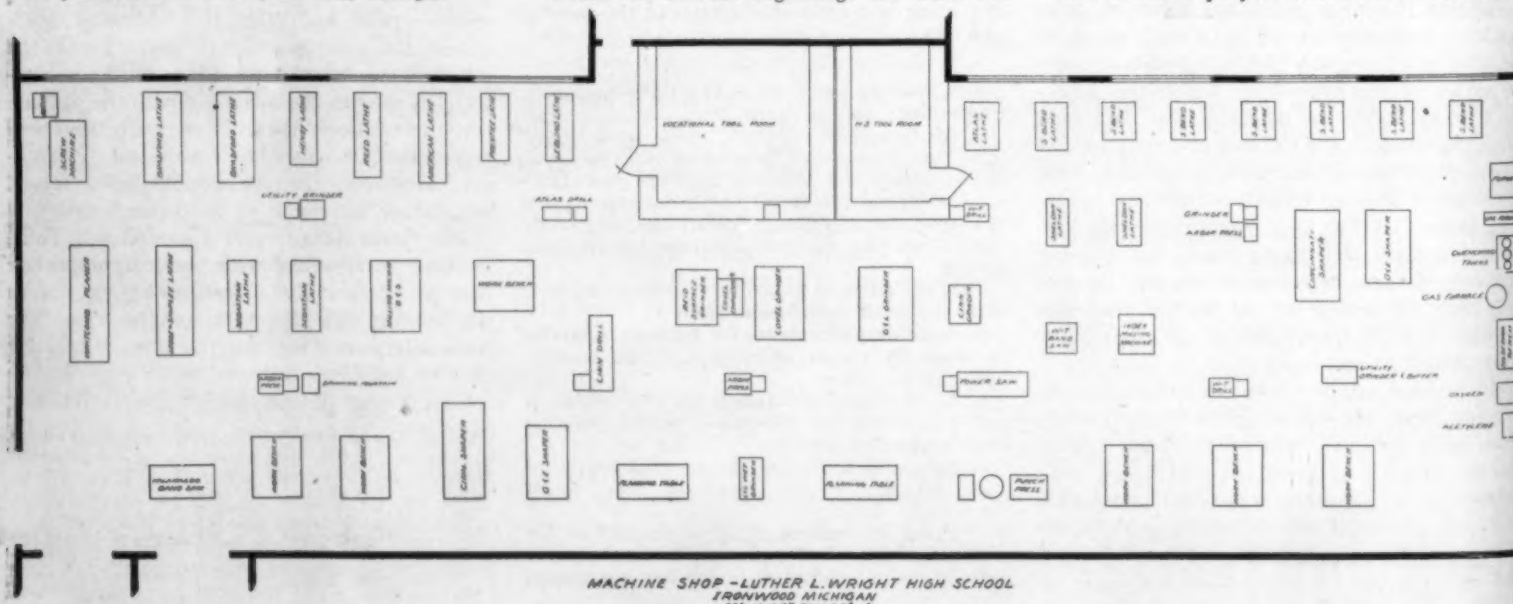
out of vogue today, but for historical and sentimental reasons it probably will be continued for the new and expanded industrial arts and vocational shops. Mr. Elmer E. Miller who came to Ironwood to organize the program in 1907 is still head of the department and has been active in setting up the new shops and in developing the new work to meet each change in situation.

adapted to the needs of the local community. Both the general and the vocational values were stressed and there were close contacts with the academic department of the high school. The development of the courses and the changes in equipment were as rapid as the community permitted.

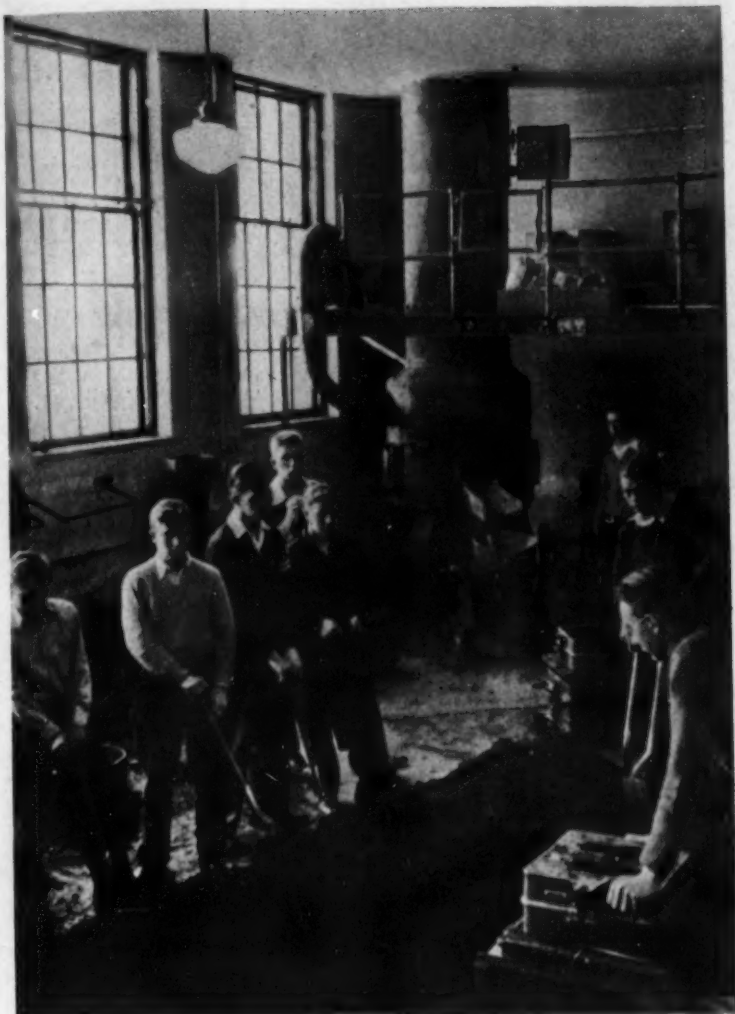
During the depression years little expansion of the program was possible. However, a large NYA resident project was established in the

<sup>1</sup>Superintendent of Schools, Ironwood, Michigan.

From the earliest beginnings the work was







(Above) The Foundry. (Top Right) The Sheet Metal Shop. (Bottom Right) The Vocational Machine Shop has Modern Production Machines.

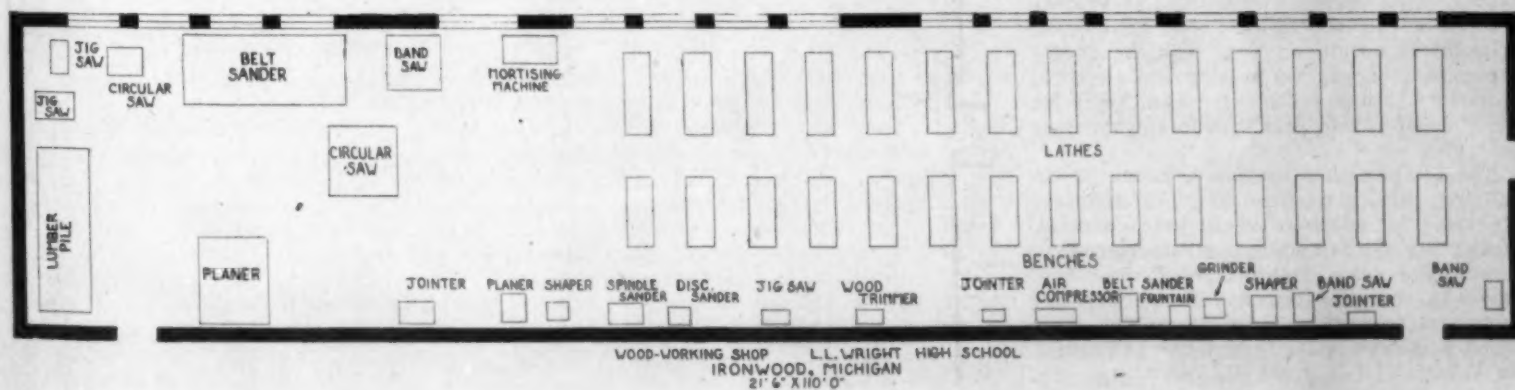
vicinity of Ironwood to meet the needs of the area, and the local school system sponsored the program. Help was given in co-operation with the State Board of Control for Vocational Education in financing the work, selecting instructors, supervising the instruction, and giving advice of many kinds. As a result of this the local NYA program was a distinct success, and much useful instruction was given to the young people who had left school and who were out of work.

#### The NYA Helped

Because of the local sponsorship of the NYA Resident Center, the Ironwood schools had high priority on the local shops and equipment when the NYA terminated as a government agency. The school system first received as a loan and then as an outright gift the following: one Butler steel fabricated shop, 140 by 40 feet with a 40 by 40-foot annex containing rather complete equipment

for a machine shop, a gas welding shop, an auto-mechanics shop, a sheet-metal shop, much equipment for woodworking, and a great quantity of hand tools and supplies. Six wooden barracks for housing the students were received at the same time.

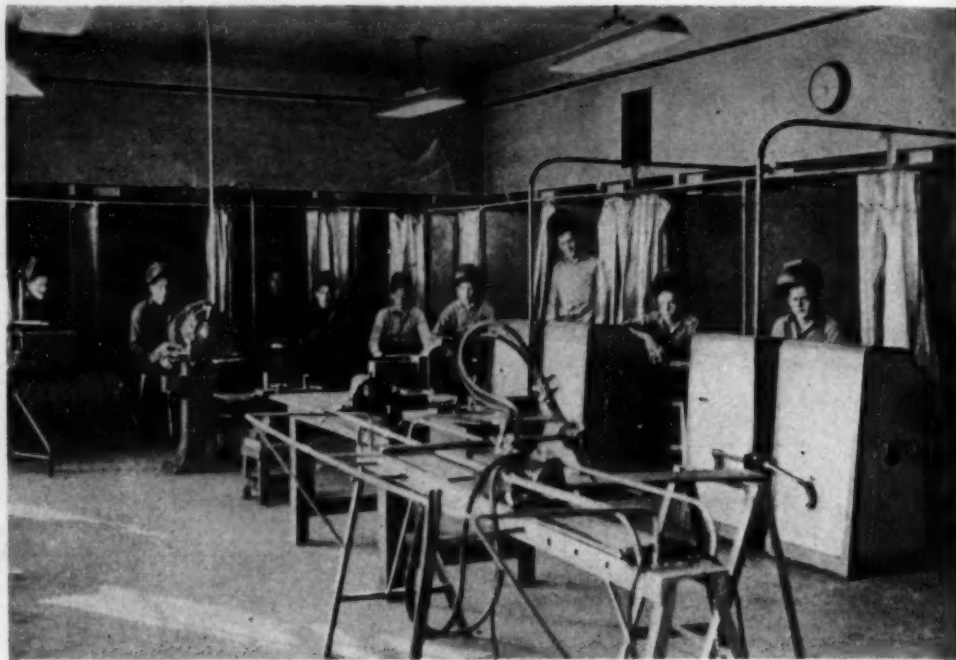
As the shop was located three miles from the city it was considered impractical to operate there; consequently, the board of education sold the shop building and barracks and moved the equipment to its own plant.



The old "Manual Training" school building which had been becoming more and more inadequate as the program was changed was now quite too small for the new shop organization and equipment. Hence the decision was made to abandon the building and to move the shops to the Luther L. Wright High School building, where space was available due to decreased enrollment and a complete change in organization.

### The War-Training Program

In November of 1940 the board of education started a program of War Production Worker training to meet the local needs of the local war industries. The courses were established in co-operation with the Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education and included machine shop, arc welding, foundry, mechanical drawing, boatbuilding, and radio. As the needs for new workers dropped the courses were limited to machine shop and welding. All activity ceased on April 30, 1945. In the development of these training courses Ironwood received nine welding units from federal funds, a shaper, a cutter and tool grinder, a gas furnace and a tempering furnace for heat treating in the machine shop, a gas-fired crucible furnace, and a sand-blast unit for the foundry.



Both Acetyline and Electric Welding are Taught.



The Pattern Shop is fitted with an ample number of lathes, work benches, and hand and machine tools.

### The Present Shops

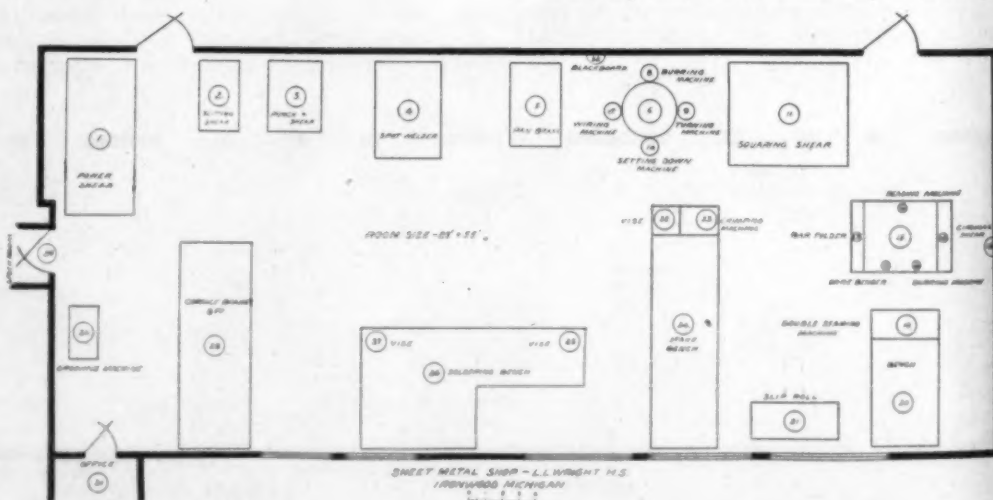
All of the present shop rooms in the Wright High School building are lighted with fluorescent lighting and heated with ceiling-hung blower units secured from the NYA shop. The use of this modern equipment has brought economy in operation. Even with the greatly expanded program, the heating and electrical costs for the high school have been lower for the 1944-45 school year than in any previous year.

The machine shop occupies a room, 38 by 126 feet, with a concrete floor. All machines are wired for power from overhead conduits, making for flexibility in cases of changes in layout. The plans for this room were first drawn by the school faculty. Then they were submitted to men with knowledge of shop layout employed by the State Board of Control for Vocational Education. In reality there are

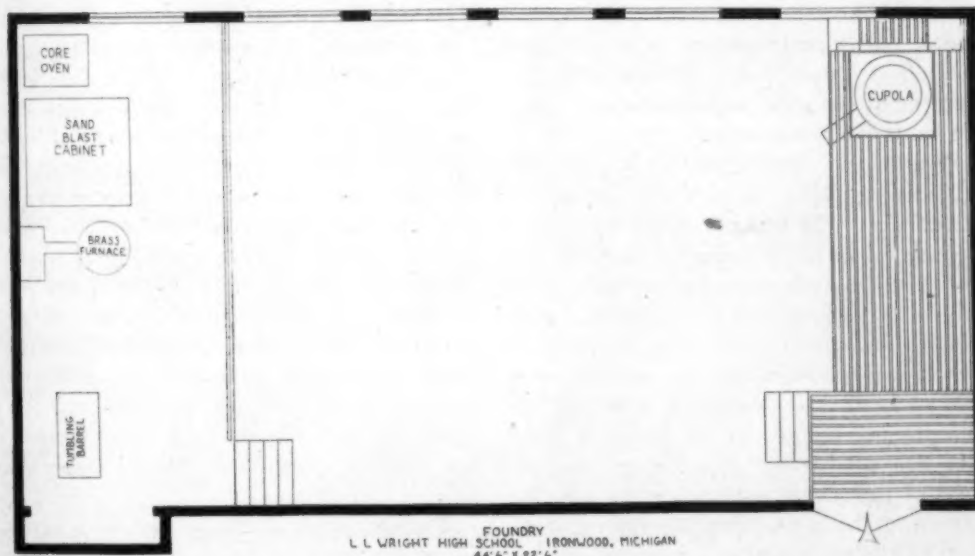
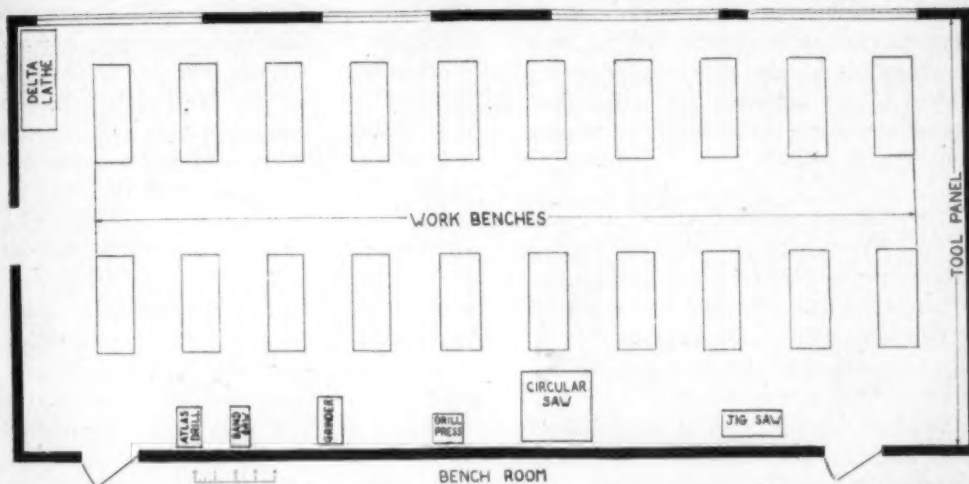
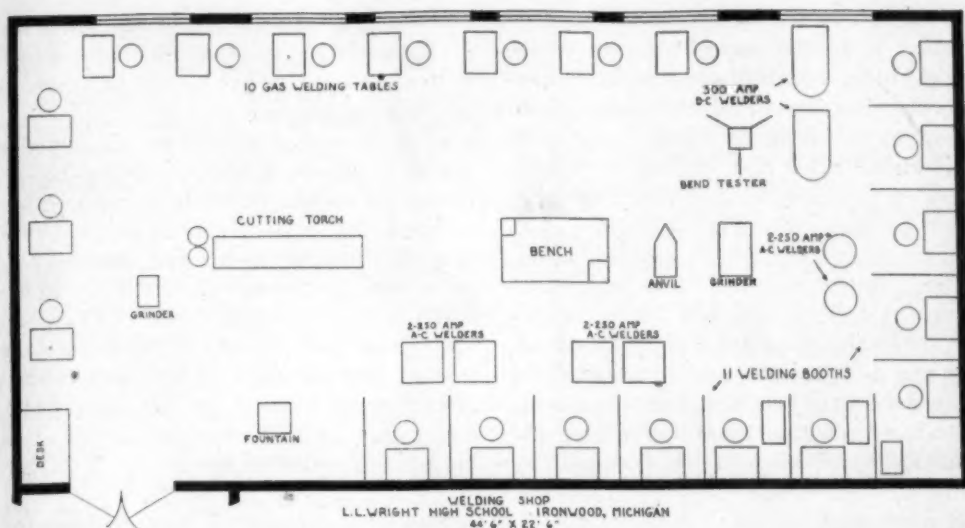
two shops in one room — one for trade courses and the other for high-school industrial-arts instruction. A separate tool crib has been established for each of these units. In spite of the amount of machinery installed, there is no crowding and the machines are placed in proper relation to each other.

The foundry has a room 28 by 48 feet, and high enough so that the cupola furnace can be charged on the same floor. The chimney was built three stories up through the roof and is lined with firebrick all the way. Casting with iron, aluminum, and brass is regularly done as the courses require. The foundry is one of three in all of the schools of Michigan. We consider it an essential unit in any shop instructional scheme. A proposed job can first be planned, drawings made, and blueprints prepared in the mechanical drawing department; then a pattern can be made in the patternmaking shop; next a mold can be prepared and a casting made in the foundry, and finally the job can be machined in the machine shop. Without the foundry this cycle of instruction is incomplete.

The woodworking and patternmaking shop is housed in a room 22 by 110 feet. The work in this shop consists of elementary benchwork







and cabinet construction, wood turning, and elementary patternmaking. The elementary courses are followed by advanced types of work in patternmaking and cabinetwork. To give each student experience, real projects, like small woodworking machines, repair parts of machines, certain types of school equipment, are planned and constructed by advanced students.

Sheet metal and mechanical drawing are also well taken care of. This work includes practical sheet-metal layout and drafting and making simple projects from sheet metal. This

is followed by more advanced work such as constructing ventilating ducts and fittings, metal school furniture, and work needed around the school plant. A complete trade course will be put in operation in September. Courses in mechanical and architectural drawing are offered in a well-lighted and equipped drawing room. The equipment here consists of 24 drawing stands and all necessary drawing tools and instruments, an electric blueprinting machine, and a large assortment of type models and patterns.

As yet the auto mechanics has not been

set up, due to lack of room, but provision for such a shop is being made. It is planned to expand this shop to offer a complete training in the theory and operation of internal combustion engines—aviation, truck, auto, and Diesel.

#### Some Modern Touches

The shops are not only modern in layout and well adapted to the instruction offered; they are quite modern in appearance. All machines have been painted to conform to the best safety practices and to give fine appearance. The body of each machine is vista green; moving parts are in ivory; and electric switches, a bright red. The contrast between the green and ivory high lights the work and is a safety factor of considerable importance. The color scheme has been extended to the walls, etc. The lower walls take the green from the machines; the upper walls are a brilliant canary yellow; the ceiling is done in a faint cascade blue. The whole effect is most pleasing. Here we have shops that are not only useful but good looking as well. We have found that a shop which looks clean is also kept clean.

#### Courses Are Popular

Approximately 75 per cent of the boys in the high school are taking work in the shops. Eighty of the 88 ninth-grade boys were enrolled during the past year. Two trade classes in machine shop and two in welding are well attended. A co-ordinator for part-time co-operative occupational training has been appointed. It has been the lack of instructors which has held back the day trade courses in sheet metal, auto mechanics, and commercial art.

A partial listing of equipment now installed will indicate the adequacy of the shops now operating.

#### Machine-Shop Equipment

20 lathes—4 shapers—1 planer—2 drill presses—1 universal milling machine—1 vertical milling machine—3 universal cutters and tool grinders—1 surface grinder—1 vertical band saw—1 horizontal band saw—1 punch press—1 buffer—1 filing machine—1 drill grinder—3 sensitive drills and 1 hand-screw machine—a large supply of hand and precision tools.

#### Welding-Shop Equipment

5 d.c. welders—6 a.c. welders—12 gas welding stations—1 gas cutter—1 testing machine.

#### Patternmaking and Woodworking

15 wood-turning lathes fully equipped with wood-turning tools—4 jig saws—2 planers—4 band saws—3 circular saws—2 belt sanders—1 disk sander—2 jointers—2 shapers—1 spindle sander—1 wood trimmer—1 upright drill—2 mortising machines—a large assortment of woodworking tools—1 spot welder for band saws.

#### Sheet-Metal Shop Equipment

30-inch bar folder—15-inch beading machine—97-inch brake—brace and wire bender—36-inch brake and folder—drill press—double seaming machine—foot notching machine—bending machine—combination burring and turning machine—hand groover—burring machine—setting down machine—hand electric shear—throatless shear—lever shears—ring and circle shears—squaring shears—72-inch power squaring shears—slip roll forcing machine—1 spot welder—a large assortment of hand tools.

Completely equipped auto-mechanics shop formerly owned by NYA.

The Ironwood schools have always been progressive. In the field of vocational training leadership has been especially in evidence. With the added equipment and the new installation we shall be able to meet almost any demand for postwar trade training needed in the community. An area vocational training center is a possibility, and training for return-

(Concluded on page 64)

## THE AMERICAN School Board Journal

A Monthly Periodical of School Administration

Edited by

Wm. Geo. Bruce and Wm. C. Bruce

### THE SUPERINTENDENT AND HIS ASSOCIATES

SHOULD the superintendent be a lone executive, quite remote and above his assistants, dominating and supervising all details of a school system? Can he build a completely effective organization by this type of setup, or should he have about him a group of associates who are close to him, each an expert in his own field, each quite free but co-operating with the whole group under the superintendent's wise and far-seeing guidance? Should the superintendent depend upon himself for initiating all new ideas in services and policies of the schools, in the broadening curriculum and the methods of instruction, in changes of organization, and in selecting supervisors and instructors?

In a discussion of the management of industry Mr. Oswald Knauth, in "Advanced Management" (April, 1945) writes:

The art of good management is to create an organization which will develop to its highest point the initiative of individuals, consistent with an orderly process and cohesiveness of purpose.

Management is an art, not a science. Hence its forms express the personality and color of one man; the chief. Through his choices, his example, and his instructions, the chief creates an extension of himself throughout the organization. From this it follows that there is no single, royal road to building a good organization.

Take the question of whether the chief should dominate and supervise every detail. That depends partly on his own character and partly on the ability of the immediate lieutenants. It is best if the chief can free himself from daily routine, and spend his time in scanning for improvements and in supervising. And yet, there is such a thing as getting so far out of touch with the daily occurrences that judgments become abstract. . . . One corporation head makes a point of never visiting his plants, lest his judgment of their performance be warped. Another rejoices in the fact that he is everywhere called by his first name, and regrets that his organization is so large that he sometimes slips into confusing the names of his employees. A third adopts a policy of harassment, so that everyone is being constantly reported on by other sets of inspectors. Yet they all are outstandingly successful.

Should there be a single "number two" man, or should there be a group of equally important and trusted executives at the next level of authority? Should the "number one" be a lonely figure, or should he be the leader of an equal group, "primus inter pares"? These are not questions of good or bad; they are matters of personality. Many solutions can work with good results if the personality factors are allowed to have effective play.

In developing and directing the group which assists him in the executive manage-

ment of a city school system the superintendent is by no means free as is the "chief" of an industrial concern. The superintendent has, first of all, the board of education to whom he is legally responsible and whose rules and policies determine many of the attitudes and relations under which he works with the board itself, with his associates, the teachers, and the public. Second, the superintendent is limited in numerous policies and acts by the school law, by local precedents, and by the standards and accepted practices of the teaching profession. It is true that there is a wide latitude even within these limitations, and that some superintendents succeed by methods which make them lone workers. The whole tendency in city school administration is in the direction of greater democracy, more recognition of the expert specialization in the different levels and services of the schools, and more acceptance of the group opinion of the teaching profession as a whole.

The relations which the superintendent should develop with the business manager of the school system provides the best illustration of the attitudes and relations which the chief executive must assume. It is less than 25 years since the business manager has come quite commonly to be considered an assistant superintendent in charge of business affairs. The change of the business managership from co-ordinate responsibility to the board to a second line position under the superintendent has not been effected without some considerable infringement by some superintendents upon the work of the manager.

Should the superintendent accept the business manager as a fully competent career man, who has mastered the fundamentals of public finance so that he can give genuine guidance in budget making, in balancing pay-as-you-go policies with bonding for capital outlay, in recommending the school department's attitudes and policies in tax proposals? And should the superintendent look to the business manager for completely dependable management of the school purchasing policies, for control of the accounting, for the management of the nonteaching personnel, and for the operation and maintenance of the school plant?

The superintendent who does not expect full competence in all these technical aspects of school-business management in the person of the business manager and who believes himself competent to act on his own personal knowledge and ability is fooling no one but himself. No superintendent can be really expert in all these fields. He has neither the time nor the

training — to say nothing of the experience — to do the type of job which the school system of any size has a right to expect of its business manager.

It is the part of wisdom for any superintendent, even in a city of middle size, to limit his contact with school-business affairs to the simple points of full assurance that any matter which the business department undertakes will contribute to the educational well-being of the children and the total educational stability of the schools. Beyond these points, and beyond orderly unity of purpose, the superintendent cannot go without ultimate defeat of his administrative action.

In a similar manner it may be expected that the superintendent will accept his assistants in charge of secondary schools, of elementary schools, and of special educational services as professional leaders who deserve to enjoy a very considerable amount of initiative and freedom. In one or even more of these fields the superintendent is undoubtedly an expert, and with all of them he is so fully familiar that his work of stimulating his second range men is essentially based on his own keen understanding of the possibilities of the services, of the purposes of the instructional program, of the successful character of the teachers. The first test of a superintendent's strength is to choose as assistant superintendents, supervisors, and principals men of ability and achievement. But mere choosing of such men is not enough: they must be encouraged, to use their ability to propose and initiate useful ideas, and to build up their respective levels of education to fully achieve their purposes for the personal development of each child and for the total social welfare of the community. While in this leadership a superintendent's success depends upon his personality, on his peculiar ability to get results by one method or another, a democratic attitude is ultimately important for balanced success and growth, for permanence, and that strength which outrides the periodic storms that always come into a school situation.

Finally, much of the success of a superintendent must be based on the authority with which the board of education clothes him and the free hand which the board gives him in putting his ideas into effect. Without the wholehearted support of the board, no superintendent and no administrative organization he builds up, can succeed very long. The board's own notions of educational standards and of administrative achievement must be high, and it is a rare superintendent who can rise above a mediocre or weak board of education.



## ADMINISTRATION AND INSTRUCTION

SCHOOL-BOARD members who are necessarily concerned most largely with the external of the school systems over which they preside are apt to forget that the professional administrator—and a board member himself—exists only to make instruction more effective. On this simple point Superintendent Charles E. Breene of Denver writes in the house organ of the schools over which he presides:

Good administration is absolutely essential for the proper operation of any program. A successful educational program implies efficient administration. The essential character of the administration of education is not determined solely by careful observance of the rules of good administration as seen in business or in other successful activities from which the schools might copy. The essential character of school administration is determined chiefly by the kind of work that is carried on in the educational program itself. How children can best learn and grow; what the content of the curriculum should be; how teachers can best lead and inspire and remain full of enthusiasm and vitality—these are the problems which make school administration necessary.

The greater function of school administration requires that all who are concerned with the operation of the schools, whether teachers, principals, supervisors, or superintendents, not only must be intelligent about, and interested in, the learning process and the instructional program but must be taking an active part in the work of instruction and in its planning. Administration when removed at all from the real needs and essential activities of instruction becomes an empty, worthless framework, and is likely to handicap instead of promote the real educational work of the school.

The most important educational leadership in the school system comes from those who are making the greatest contribution in promoting definite improvements in the educational program. Many times these leaders are teachers; sometimes they are principals; they may be specialists from the central administration. However, the value of the leadership is determined by the contribution made and not by the position held by the individual concerned. He who is most successful in promoting improvements in instruction best serves the greater function of school administration.

## A BETTER APPROACH TO TEACHER RETIREMENT

BECAUSE the age criterion is in the main the most practical approach to the problem, the several state teachers' retirement laws fix the age limit when retirements must go into effect. But to hold that a person must leave his teaching position because he or she has reached a certain physical age does not always result in the best interests of a school system. There are those who, at the retirement age, of say 60 or 65, possess both physical and mental vigor to carry on. Where the law is unequivocal in its language, it must be obeyed. On the other hand, there are those who should have been removed from the classroom years before the age limit was reached. In other words, disposition, mental alertness, continued sympathy for children, adaptability to new problems, lack of fatigue—are all more important than the years of a man's age.

The school committee of Worcester, Mass., recently approached the question of retirement of school employees by relying entirely upon a physical test of teachers to be retired. A board of three medical examiners was appointed, one by the superintendent of schools, one by the teachers; and the two appointees selected the third. This body is to examine the older teaching force and recommend retirement where mental and physical efficiency fall below par regardless of age limitations. A similar plan has been in use in other local communities with good results—but with some natural protests from aging instructors.

While this approach to the requirements

has the merits of justice to children and to the retiring teachers themselves, it has also elements of fairness to the novice teacher who is just entering the profession and to the young teacher who is approaching the height of his professional power after five to ten years' service. To give these latter groups their chance is not without professional merit: it is a gesture of unselfishness and generosity. More of this willingness to pass down the torch to the younger men and women will quickly remove the criticism made by so many outside observers that the teaching profession is becoming more and more one of old men and women which needs the stimulus of young blood.

## School Administration in Action

### THE GOSHEN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TESTING PROGRAM

Elementary school testing has become standard procedure in raising the quality of teaching in the elementary schools of Goshen, Ind. A statement recently issued by Supt. R. G. Weaver and Mr. Gerald Moyer, in charge of testing, makes clear the fact that the schools have overcome a number of basic difficulties and that the reorganized plan of testing will produce even better effects than the excellent results attained during the past school year.

In an appraisal of initial classes, Dr. Weaver had the program examined by representatives of the Indiana State Department of Education and of Indiana University. Where unsatisfactory results were obtained, these were due to the lack of experience on the part of teachers in standardized testing. The problems of the past year have been used to expand the recording and remedial uses of the tests.

During the year, some of the teachers suffered from misconceptions concerning the validity and reliability of the tests. Some felt that accurate attention to the method of giving the tests and to the scoring were unnecessary. The results were accordingly unsatisfactory for these teachers.

The experience of the year has made clear that all test results, even those not recorded in the pupils' reports, have distinct values for remedial instruction. The educational philosophy, "teach, test, teach, test, and teach again" has wide justification. The tests scheduled for 1945-46 include mental maturity tests for the kindergarten and grades 1, 3, and 6; reading tests for grades 1, 2, 4, and 6; general achievement tests for grades 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6; arithmetic tests for grades 4 and 5; personality tests for grades 3 and 6; and science tests for grade 5.

### PROGRESS REPORTED IN OWENSBORO, KY.

During the school year 1944-45 the elementary schools of Owensboro, Ky., have benefited through the services of Miss Bess Moore, newly elected as supervisor of elementary education. Miss Moore, who has had several years' experience as a primary teacher and as principal of an elementary school, was employed to act as supervisor of instruction in the nine elementary schools. The appointment of this new member of the supervisory staff has proved beneficial as judged by the testimony of the teachers and the principals.

During the year a general physical director was employed for the 13 schools of the system. The newly created position was filled by Mr. G. N. Parrish, formerly director of physical education in the senior high school. The work of Mr. Parrish has been especially effective in improving the equipment for physical education, in directing the teachers in the types of exercises to be given, and

in arousing in the children an interest in physical improvement and posture.

During the present summer vacation period Owensboro has in operation a complete summer recreational program. The program which will be in operation during the vacation period of 13 weeks is financed by the city and directed by members of the school staff. Five playground centers are operated, one for colored children and four for white children. Two sessions are operated in the daytime for children and young people, and a twilight session is being conducted in the evening. Two teen-canteen centers are being conducted, one for colored youth and one for whites. These are operated from 8 to 10:30 each night, three evenings each week, and are under the direction of trained entertainers.

During the year the school board completed the erection of a four-classroom addition to the Longfellow School. This school is located in an area which is badly congested because of its nearness to a war-industry plant, and the board was able to get the approval of the FWA to finance this building. The government agency gave financial assistance to the extent of 40 per cent of the cost of construction. The completion of this building made it possible for the board to remove classes from gymnasiums, lunchrooms, and libraries and have them properly located in regular classrooms.

All of the improvements were effected under the direction of Mr. J. L. Foust, superintendent of the Owensboro schools.

### MADISON RELIGIOUS TRAINING PROGRAM

In September, 1945, at the suggestion of Supt. George T. Wilkins, the board of education of Madison, Ill., introduced a religious training program to combat juvenile delinquency.

The school board had previously polled the parents of 1500 school children in grade and high schools. Almost 95 per cent of the parents answered by letter that they wanted their children to have religious instruction and specified the church to which they wished their children to be sent.

The Madison children, each Friday morning, attend the church of their parent's choice. The high school students go to Friday "Sunday" school from 8:00 to 9:00 a.m. Grade children go to church from 9:00 to 10:00 a.m. All classes are dismissed one study hour each week to permit the children to attend. Absence from church without good reason is considered as truancy the same as absence from the classroom. The children like Friday "Sunday" school and few absences are noted.

The few children for whom no choice of a church has been made assemble one hour each week at the city hall, where they are given special

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## For the Small City —

# The Mt. Vernon Teachers' Salary Schedule

Ralph Boyer<sup>1</sup> and J. D. Geiger<sup>2</sup>

The situation which has prevailed in the Mt. Vernon, Ohio, Public Schools with respect to salaries has probably been typical of that of communities of similar size. The city of Mt. Vernon has a population of approximately 13,000, has 2100 school pupils, and employs 80 teachers. The board of education has not been satisfied with the salary levels, particularly since the schools have had the typical experience of competing with industry, at the same time the board has attempted to compensate somewhat for added living costs. Prior to adopting a salary schedule teachers were paid rather haphazardly as individuals, depending to some degree on which individuals complained most.

The first attempt to correct the situation was by means of a salary schedule designed around the available income. A year of operation under that schedule proved that the income was not sufficient, so the voters were asked for an additional one mill levy to help correct

the situation. The additional mill now brings the total to 7.4 mills for operation and provides approximately \$19,000 per year additional income. Having secured approval of this additional income, the board of education worked diligently on the new schedule which has been adopted and is now in operation. Some of the principles of this schedule may be of interest to other communities, since this board gave a great deal of consideration to a number of points.

## Twelve Essentials in the Scale

1. *High School vs. Elementary Teachers.* A single salary schedule was adopted on the principle that an elementary teacher should be paid the same as a high school teacher, assuming the same amount of training and experience.

2. *Minimum Salary.* The minimum salary should be sufficient to permit a living wage, yet purposely should be held low to encourage teachers to secure additional training. The Mt. Vernon minimum is \$1,080 for two years of training and \$1,485 for five years.

3. *Maximum Salary.* The salary for the maximum amount of training and experience should be as high as possible within the income available, even though quite a few years of experience are required to reach the top range. The Mt. Vernon maximum is \$2,265, requiring 26 years of experience to attain it.

4. *Training vs. Experience.* Both of these points need consideration in the schedule and are matters of relative importance. The decision of the Mt. Vernon board is that each ten hours' training should increase the salary level by \$45 per year, while each year's additional experience should increase the salary level by \$30 per year.

5. *Increments.* It was the decision of the board that the increments should be small, but frequent. The new schedule provides for an increment for each ten hours of additional training, so that a teacher may attain the next step on the schedule by a summer's training. The schedule also provides an additional step for each year of experience so that a teacher's salary level may increase each year.

6. *Increment Changes.* It is possible to construct the salary schedule with relatively high increase of increments during the earlier years of experience and relatively low increases in later years, or it is possible to do the reverse. The former plan rapidly raises the salary of younger teachers, while the latter slowly increases the younger teachers, but compensates them more rapidly in later years. The decision of the Mt. Vernon board was to accept a compromise on these plans and make the rate of increase a constant.

## Special Services Properly Paid

7. *Special Services.* There are a number of special services in the school system that require additional compensation. Typical are the positions of the superintendent, principals, assistant principals, athletic coaches, school nurse, elementary art, elementary and high school music, vocational teachers, etc. These are considered individually from the angle of additional amounts to be paid above the schedule.

8. *Salaries of Men vs. Women.* The decision of this board was that there should be no differential between men and women. It is realized that some men must be maintained and that under present conditions that is very difficult without paying additional salary. However, a study of special services reveals that many of the men are engaged in those services which automatically receive individual attention anyway. However, it should be pointed out that there are also women in these special services who are paid equally well.

9. *Additional Training.* This schedule recommends that teachers secure additional training so as to advance on the schedule, but does not make such training mandatory. That is left entirely to the discretion of the individual.

10. *Merit.* It is the feeling of this board that some consideration must be given to merit, so a provision has been made whereby in exceptional cases an individual teacher shown to be outstanding may be increased one or more steps on the schedule provided the recommendation of the superintendent is approved by the board. On the other hand, the schedule provides that any individual failing to show co-operation, or results, may be prevented from advancing on the schedule. To this extent merit is recognized.

## Increases Due All Paid

11. *Outside Experience.* Some schedules allow for a certain percentage of credit for experience outside the system. By our schedule a teacher will lose one year of credit when coming into the system from some other school. Thus a teacher with two years' experience in another system would be credited with one, while one with twenty years would be credited with nineteen.

12. *Allowable Increases in Any One Year.* In adopting a salary schedule, obviously some teachers receive a considerable increase, while others may receive nothing. Some systems have adopted a policy of allowing a certain maximum, say \$100, as an increase in any one

<sup>1</sup>Chairman of the Finance Committee, Mount Vernon Board of Education, Mount Vernon, Ohio.

<sup>2</sup>Superintendent of Schools, Mount Vernon.

TEACHERS' SALARY SCHEDULE, MOUNT VERNON, OHIO

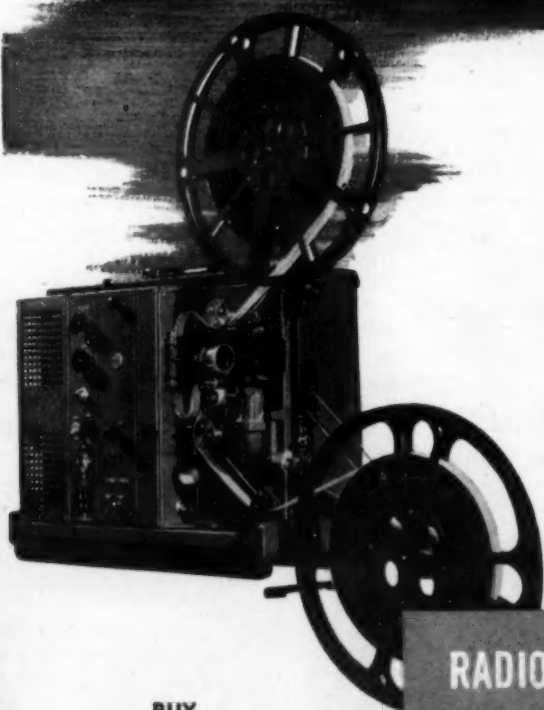
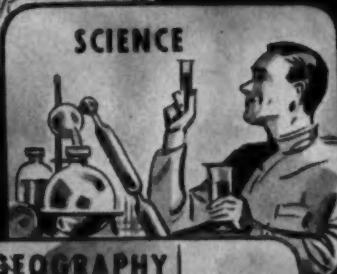
YRS. EXPER.	HOURS TRAINING									
	60	70	80	90	100	110	120	130	140	150
0	\$1080	\$1125	\$1170	\$1215	\$1260	\$1305	\$1350	\$1395	\$1440	\$1485
1	1110	1155	1200	1245	1290	1335	1380	1425	1470	1515
2	1140	1185	1230	1275	1320	1365	1410	1455	1500	1545
3	1170	1215	1260	1305	1350	1395	1440	1485	1530	1575
4	1200	1245	1290	1335	1380	1425	1470	1515	1560	1605
5	1230	1275	1320	1365	1410	1455	1500	1545	1590	1635
6	1260	1305	1350	1395	1440	1485	1530	1575	1620	1665
7	1290	1335	1380	1425	1470	1515	1560	1605	1650	1695
8	1320	1365	1410	1455	1500	1545	1590	1635	1680	1725
9	1350	1395	1440	1485	1530	1575	1620	1665	1710	1755
10	1380	1425	1470	1515	1560	1605	1650	1695	1740	1785
11	1410	1455	1500	1545	1590	1635	1680	1725	1770	1815
12	1440	1485	1530	1575	1620	1665	1710	1755	1800	1845
13	1470	1515	1560	1605	1650	1695	1740	1785	1830	1875
14	1500	1545	1590	1635	1680	1725	1770	1815	1860	1905
15	1530	1575	1620	1665	1710	1755	1800	1845	1890	1935
16	1560	1605	1650	1695	1740	1785	1830	1875	1920	1965
17	1590	1635	1680	1725	1770	1815	1860	1905	1950	1995
18	1620	1665	1710	1755	1800	1845	1890	1935	1980	2025
19			1740	1785	1830	1875	1920	1965	2010	2055
20					1860	1905	1950	1995	2040	2085
21							1980	2025	2070	2115
22								2055	2100	2145
23									2130	2175
24										2205
25										2235
26										2265

The Schedule gives adequate credit for training and for experience.

(Concluded on page 64)



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**A Valuable Repetition of —****Board of Education Policies***M. L. McCoy<sup>1</sup>*

Probably the most democratic institution in the world is the public school of the United States of America: the rich and poor, the laborer and capitalist, the professional and indigent, the infidel and religious believer, and, in some instances, those of all races — whatever may be the adult barriers — their children work and play together and share alike with mutual fair play and respect. If there is a basis for peace, domestic as well as international, this must be it. To be entrusted with the responsibility of directing the public schools for four thousand of these young citizens of the nation to which all the world looks, with respect and hope, for leadership, is truly a *challenging trust*.

**Responsibility of the Board of Education**

"The board of education is a specialized legislative body acting as the agent of the state and of the community it specifically represents. This legislative body is empowered to make the state educational plan effective in its own locality. Since only a small part of this plan is mandatory, the actual development and execution of a complete educational plan for most communities must be conditioned not only by the interpretation of community needs but also by the development of a community consciousness of these needs."<sup>2</sup>

This job is infinitely complicated because it must be carried on through very close co-operation with the families of the pupils, often in the most intimate relations. Hence human relations loom as of greatest concern. Often the difference between a co-operative, quick-learning child and a rebellious dullard is an attitude of mind. This ready, co-operative attitude in the minds of pupils, teachers, and all the personnel of an organization is called *morale*. Without it little can be accomplished.

<sup>1</sup>Mr. McCoy, who is superintendent of schools for Wayne, Mich., sent out the present statement to the new members of the Wayne Board of Education, selected at the June, 1945, election. The statement was intended to provide a clear understanding of responsibilities of the board and of its executive officer.

<sup>2</sup>Quoted from A. B. Moehlman, Professor of School Administration, University of Michigan.

It is contagious. It must be deliberately cultivated, not by pandering and too ready concessions; but by clear, constructive, equitable policies consistently applied.

**The Superintendent's Function**

"The general responsibilities of the superintendent of schools are the facilitation of the instructional process by: (a) putting the adopted educational policies of the state and of the board of education into practice, (b) appraising the practice in accordance with executive needs, (c) supplying the board of education with means for keeping the agents and the people fully informed of conditions and needs of the schools, (d) furnishing creative leadership to the profession and to the board of education."<sup>2</sup>

It will be entirely reasonable to you that the superintendent of a school, as of any other enterprise, must know the policies of his governing board before he can act with assurance in carrying on the enterprise. You would probably agree further, that a hesitant, groping administrator merely invites the contempt of everyone instead of the confidence with which people should be able to regard their schools. Hence a rather comprehensive body of policies, formulated deliberately upon sound principles to best serve the unique, local situation, is the best basis of operation.

When policies have been established two very important confidences are essential to a satisfactory working arrangement: confidence in the minds of the board members that the superintendent will always act in good faith with those policies; and confidence in the mind of the superintendent that, when he acts in good faith with his policies, he will always enjoy the full support of the board of education, individually and collectively.

Perhaps a third confidence is quite as essential: that, although everyone may remain vigorously partisan until official action has been taken; thereafter this official action, as long as it remains such, shall be individually and collectively supported, and in so doing the integrity of the corporate body shall be upheld.

7. Do boys engage in the same activities as do the girls?

In gathering information, questionnaires, interviews, and observation were used. The mothers of the Forty-Ninth Street Kindergarten of the Indianapolis Free Kindergarten Society were asked to check on the questionnaires their children's first, second, and third choices in a list of activities, and also their favorite story, song, and game. When the questionnaires were returned, the results were tabulated. Each child was asked at the kindergarten his first, second, and third choices of work-time activities, and also his favorite story, song, and game. The observation of the children's interests at the kindergarten was carried on over a period of three months February, March, and April, 1944.

**The Findings**

Some of the points gained from the study are:

1. Among the materials the first choice of the girls in this kindergarten is crayons, second is paints, and third is doll corner material, as determined by the combined methods of questionnaires and interviews. By observation crayons again rank first, scissors and paste is second, and doll corner again ranks third.

2. Among the materials the first choice of the boys in this kindergarten is the workbench, second is blocks, and third is crayons, by the methods of questionnaires and interviews. By observation blocks rank first, crayons are second, and the workbench is third.

3. When the two groups, boys and girls, are combined the first choice is crayons, second is the workbench, and third is the paints. By observation crayons again rank first, blocks are second, and scissors and paste is third.

4. The girls prefer active games, classic childhood stories, and songs about animals and people.

5. The boys prefer active games, classic childhood stories, and songs about animals and people.

6. The group as a whole prefers active games, classic childhood stories, and songs about animals and people.

7. The girls' choices indicate that they prefer quiet activities such as the crayons, paints, and doll corner materials. The boys prefer first and second the workbench and blocks which are active, and third the crayons which is a quiet interest. While boys prefer active interests more often than girls they enjoy the quiet activities also.

From this study of a kindergarten group it seems evident that boys like the quiet as well as the active activities. I would suggest to parents that they allow the boys to engage in such activities as the doll corner, playing house, ironing, cooking, playing with dolls, and any other activity which might seem to parents to belong exclusively to girls. Also I would recommend that girls be given a chance to experiment with hammer, nails, wood, the workbench, blocks, and other activities which some people assign only to the realm of boys' activities.

To teachers I would suggest that they allow all children to engage at some time or other in the kindergarten in the activities of the group whether they are usually thought of as belonging to one sex group or not. I think in this way many children will engage in activities which may have been thought to be forbidden for their sex group.

**Interests of Kindergarten Children***Anne Mary Holmes, M.S.<sup>1</sup>*

The problem set for herself by the writer was to determine the interests of kindergarten children, and to find the differences if any, in the favorite activities of girls and boys. More specifically the study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the interests of kindergarten girls as to first, second, and third choices of kindergarten activities?

2. What are the interests of kindergarten

boys as to first, second, and third choices of kindergarten activities?

3. What are the choices of interests of both sexes as a group, questions one and two combined?

4. What are the favorite stories, songs, and games of girls?

5. What are the favorite stories, songs, and games of boys?

6. What are the favorite stories, songs, and games of both sexes as a group?

<sup>1</sup>Kindergarten, Indianapolis, Ind.



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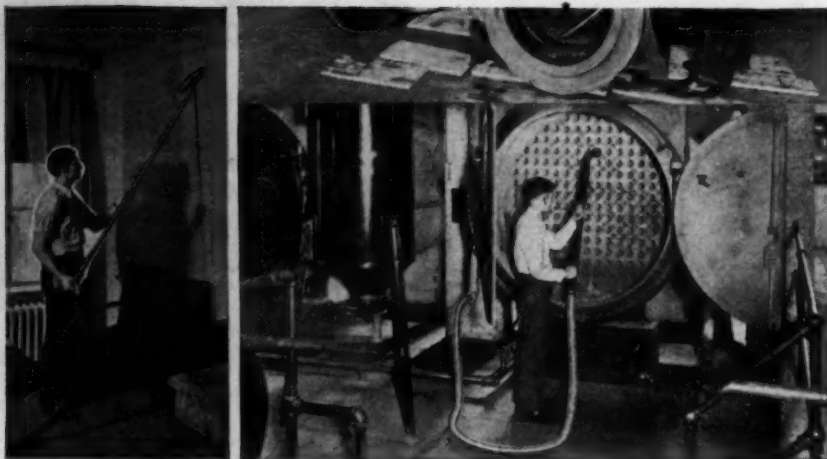
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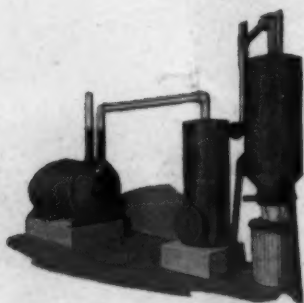
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## Teachers' Salaries

### ELMWOOD PARK SCHEDULE

The board of education of School Dist. No. 85, of Cook County, in Elmwood Park, Ill., has adopted a new salary schedule, based upon (a) years of teaching experience, (b) training, and (c) satisfactory performance of teaching duties. The schedule becomes effective during the school year 1945-46.

Under the schedule, teachers without degrees and no experience, will begin at \$1,350 and will work up to a maximum of \$1,550 at the end of the fourth year of service. Teachers holding a bachelor's degree will receive a starting salary of \$1,500 and will work up to a maximum of \$2,500 at the end of the tenth year. Teachers holding a master's degree will begin at \$1,700 and

will reach a maximum of \$3,000 at the end of their thirteenth year of service.

Teachers with experience in schools or institutions approved by the board will, in addition, be entitled to credit for such experience equal to one half of the credit to which they are entitled in the schedule for teaching experience. Teachers with two or three years' experience outside of the school district will be entitled only to credit for one year's experience. No more than five years' credit will be allowed for experience previous to employment in the Elmwood Park schools.

Where the services of a teacher during any school year are not satisfactory to the board or the superintendent of schools, the board is not obligated to comply with the schedule or pay the salary called for.

It is provided that 50 per cent of each salary increase shall be construed as paid for satisfactory service and the remaining 50 per cent for excep-

tional service. The amount of the increases called for in the schedule is to be determined by the board in its sole discretion.

No teacher shall receive in any one year a salary in excess of \$200 more than such teacher received during the preceding year.

### SAN DIEGO'S NEW SINGLE-SALARY SCHEDULE

The board of education of San Diego, Calif., has recently adopted a 12-point, single-salary schedule, which provides a minimum salary of \$1,800 and a maximum of \$3,300, and places all teachers on the same basis. The schedule is divided into seven divisions as follows:

*Schedule A*—dental hygienists, teachers with elementary credentials only and no degree.

*Schedule B*—teachers with junior credentials and special secondary credentials but no degree.

*Schedule C*—teachers with B.E. degree (106 professional credits), and teachers who have attained the maximum under a former schedule but whose professional preparation and training do not satisfy present requirements.

*Schedule D*—teachers who have attained the maximum under a former schedule, but whose professional preparation and training do not satisfy present requirements.

*Class I*—teachers holding a B.A., a B.E., or a B.S. degree, together with a kindergarten, elementary, junior high school, or special secondary credential.

*Class II*—teachers holding an M.A., an M.S., or equivalent degree, a general secondary credential, or the equivalent (32 semester credits of upper division college work).

*Class III*—teachers holding an M.A., an M.S., or more advanced degree and a general secondary credential or the equivalent, but no equivalent for a master's degree.

In addition to the salaries provided, an emergency allowance of \$10 per month is given to all employees, teachers, and nonteachers. Principals, directors, and administrators are given the same base pay, plus additional amount depending on the office they hold. Teachers who hold the Ed.D. or Ph.D. degree are given \$100 in addition to their regular salary.

Under the plan of giving increment increases for services rendered, each teacher is allowed one increment for the first three of each four years' teaching service, up to the maximum for the group. The fourth increment which is a training increment must be earned in a summer school, a university extension class, travel, or creative or professional work.

The nonteaching group, which includes twenty classifications, provides five salary increments. The salaries in the classifications range from \$87 to \$307 per month. All teachers will receive two years' credit for experience obtained outside of the local school system.

All teaching and nonteaching employees are eligible to participate in regular vacations, paid sick leaves, and pensions.

### TEACHERS' SALARIES

► Atlanta, Ga. The board of education has extended war bonus payments to school employees for another six months, and has set aside \$376,000 for the purpose. The bonus payments amount to 17½ per cent for persons making more than \$250 per month, and 22½ per cent for those making less than \$250 per month.

► Henderson, Ky. The school board has decided to use certain surplus funds to amend the basic salary schedule from \$100 to \$103, retroactive to July, 1944. This amounts to a bonus of \$27 for each teacher on a nine-month salary basis.

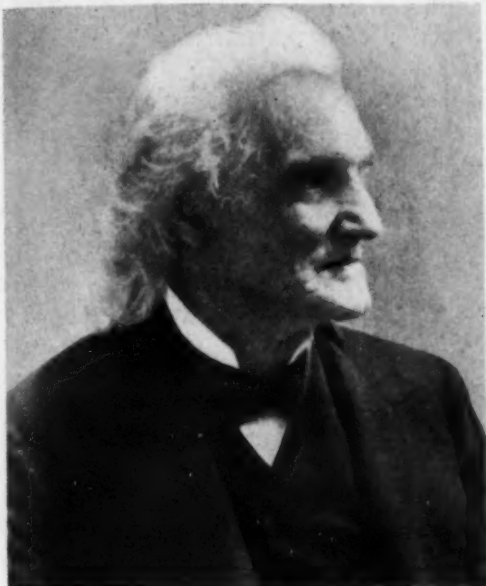
► North Adams, Mass. The school board has voted to give salary increases to men and women of the school staff who have served ten years or more. Male teachers in the high school with ten years or more service will receive \$2,550, and other men will receive salaries amounting to \$50 less than that figure for each year of service. Women teachers with ten years' or more service will earn \$2,300, with a like stepdown of \$50. Elementary principals will be raised to \$2,750 on the same basis, as will the supervisor of trade schools.



OBSERVE CENTENNIAL OF FIRST FREE SCHOOL  
WEST OF THE ALLEGHENIES

On June 18, 1945, a significant event in educational history was observed at Kenosha, Wis., when citizens and state and local officials joined in commemorating the centennial of the first free school in the nation west of the Alleghenies.

The event was celebrated by a ceremony of tribute to Col. Michael Frank, and by an out-



Col. Michael Frank  
Organizer of first free school in  
Midwest.

door pageant which re-enacted century-old scenes. Hon. John C. Callahan, Wisconsin's state superintendent of public instruction, was present and gave recognition to the event by laying a wreath at the tomb of Colonel Frank.

Colonel Frank was the son of an American Revolutionary soldier and his devotion to freedom and opportunity was inherent. On February 24, 1845, he succeeded in having passed a bill by the legislature, applicable only to Southport (Kenosha), which if approved by the voters, would allow them to tax themselves for public education. It was approved by the citizens on April 30, 1845. The school was opened in the summer of 1845, and the first free high school was established on July 30, 1849.

Colonel Frank died at the age of 90 years and was buried in Kenosha Cemetery on December 30, 1894. On June 29, 1895, the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of free schools in Wisconsin was observed and the *Kenosha Evening News* printed a tribute of respect to Colonel Frank. Supt. Mary D. Bradford delivered a paper dealing with the life and history of Colonel Frank and his connection with the public schools of Wisconsin.

## Personal News

► JOHN AMOS has been appointed assistant superintendent of schools at Jackson, Mich. He was formerly director of vocational guidance.

► DR. J. W. SEXTON, retiring superintendent of schools of Lansing, Mich., was the recipient on May 17, of the Forney Clement award for outstanding work in the community. The award was given by the Lansing Kiwanis Club.

► DWIGHT H. RICH has been elected superintendent of schools at Lansing, Mich., to succeed Dr. J. W. Sexton. DR. E. H. THORNE has been named assistant superintendent.

► SUPT. ERNEST W. FELLOWS, of Gloucester, Mass., retired from the school service on June 30, after 24 years in the superintendency.

► DR. ERNEST G. LAKE, of Barre, Vt., will succeed Mr. Fellows as superintendent at Gloucester, Mass.

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► SUPT. MELVIN G. DAVIS, of Peoria, Ill., has been re-elected for a three-year term, with an increase in salary.

► SUPT. CLYDE DAVIDSON, of Jackson, Ky., has been re-elected for another year.

► SUPT. WILBUR R. TRIMPE, of Havana, Ill., has been re-elected for his fourteenth consecutive term.

► CECIL W. MARTIN, of Peru, Ill., has been elected superintendent of schools at Streator, to succeed H. K. Whittier.

► ABEL A. HANSON has been elected superintendent of schools at Elizabeth, N. J., to succeed Roy E. Cheney. He was formerly supervising principal of the Union Free District Schools of Elmont, L.I., N. Y.

► SUPT. K. W. SCHULZE, of Crystal Falls, Mich., has been re-elected for a three-year term, with an annual salary of \$4,300.

► NELSON N. STORK has been re-elected superintendent of the Hoopston, Ill., schools for a fourth term.

► LT. COL. CARLETON W. WASHBURN, director of

education in Italy, and on leave from the superintendency at Winnetka, Ill., will not return to Winnetka due to the pressure of heavy duties in Italy.

► S. R. LOGAN, at present superintendent of schools in Winnetka, Ill., has reached the retirement age and will shortly resign. Mr. Logan will remain until a suitable successor has been obtained by the board.

► DR. N. E. WATSON, superintendent of schools at Northbrook, Ill., acted as professor of education during the summer session at the University of South Dakota, Vermillion. Dr. Watson conducted courses in school administration. His special field is school-board relationships and interpretation of the schools to board members.

► CLIM C. LORW, of Lebanon, Ill., has accepted the superintendency at Lawrenceville. He succeeds M. N. Todd, who has retired after 18 years' service.

► FRANK K. PLATT has been elected superintendent of schools at Peru, Ill., to succeed C. W. Martin.

► THOMAS F. HAMILTON has been elected superintendent of schools at Campbellsville, Ky., to succeed J. A. Jones.

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**Publications for  
School Business Executives****Statistics of City School Systems, 1939-40 and 1941-42**

By Lester B. Herlihy and Walter S. Deffenbaugh. Paper, 103 pages. Published by the U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, D. C.

This report which comprises Chapter VII of Volume II of the Biennial Surveys of Education in the United States gives data on 3113 cities in 3127 school districts for the years 1939-40 and 1941-42. It includes complete information on enrollment, attendance, length of school year, pupil-teacher ratio, supervision, salaries, sources of revenue of city school systems, distribution of city school expenditures, expenditures per pupil in A.D.A., school buildings and property, bonded indebtedness, night schools, and summer schools.

**Architects' Visual Equipment Handbook**

Paper, 18 pages. Published by Bell & Howell, 7100 McCormick Road, Chicago 45, Ill.

This booklet, prepared and issued by the educational division of the Bell & Howell Company, is designed to show architects, school boards, and others how to plan or adapt rooms for the showing of motion pictures or other visual aids for instruction or entertainment.

The table of contents which is inclusive lists seating arrangement, screen size and type, projector support, electrical specifications, illumination and acoustics of room, and classroom projection equipment. Auditorium specifications cover acoustics, position of projector and loud-speaker, size and location of screen, lens focal length, projection booth, projection equipment, electrical specifications, and service room.

**Bus Facts, 1943-44**

Compiled and published by the National Association of Motor Bus Operators, Washington 5, D. C.

Includes data on school-bus operation, state regulations, and other practical data.

**Report on the Oklahoma City Schoolhousing Program**

By Dr. Frank W. Hart. Paper, 34 pages. Published by the board of education, Oklahoma City 4, Okla.

A report on a survey for the modernization and repair of the school plant of Oklahoma City. It includes a

housing program for the secondary schools, a summary of the pupil capacity in secondary schools, a summary of cost estimates on new buildings, the suggested location of primary schools as relief measures in large and crowded schools, and a proposed housing program for elementary schools.

**Outline of Duties of the Secretary to the Supervising Principal**

Compiled by Mrs. Helen R. Nowrey. Paper, 7 pages. Published by the author at Haddon Heights, N. J.

The secretary to Supervising Principal Clyde W. Slocum, of the Haddon Heights schools, has here compressed into a few pages, the results of a full year's record of her work and responsibilities. Under the heading of (1) administrative jobs, (2) work for the board of education, (3) secretarial work, (4) accounting, (5) high school service, (6) telephone, (7) personal service, (8) filing, both daily, monthly, and occasional jobs are recorded. Mrs. Nowrey makes clear that the school clerk must be an efficient, courteous, responsible, remembering, and tactful public employee upon whose doing well all things both great and small depends much of the success of the school.



Summer School for Adults.

Milwaukee Journal

**Statistics of Nonpublic Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1940-41**

By Lester B. Herlihy. Paper, 28 pages. Price, 10 cents. U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

This booklet, Volume II of the Biennial Survey of Education for 1940-42, offers complete statistics of the nonpublic elementary and secondary schools for 1940-41. It covers 10,967 usable reports for the 1940-41 school year, which is 70 per cent of all private schools in the country below the college level. The totals represent net increases of 2015 elementary schools and 397 secondary schools between 1940-41 and 1932-33, for Continental United States. The total number of pupils enrolled in the private elementary and secondary schools is estimated at 3,000,000 pupils for 1940-41. The booklet lists the total enrollment, the school property, equipment and endowment, the number of pupils per school, and the private schools for Negroes in the elementary division. In the secondary division, it lists the number of schools, the holding power, the number of graduates, the department of private schools, boarding schools, school property and equipment.

**Cost-of-Living Salary Adjustment Plans for Municipal Employees of Detroit, Michigan**

By J. M. Leonard and Rosina Mohaupt. Paper, 42 pages. Bulletin 168, July, 1944. Price, 50 cents. Published by the Detroit Bureau of Governmental Research, Detroit, Mich.

This report is the first critical analysis of this method of adjusting public salaries to economic conditions.

The cost-of-living plan, it is believed, has special merit in its application to municipalities. It is a helpful solution to municipal financing, it makes easy salary increases at a time when prices rise and taxes are easy to collect, and it permits reductions when the basic reason for higher compensation is removed through falling prices. Most of the existing plans have no assured permanency because they are ordinances of bylaws readily modified. A workable plan of this kind to have permanency should be provided through a charter amendment. The principles and practices here explained are valuable for adjusting the compensation of nonteaching school personnel.

**How to Feed Children in Nursery Schools**

By Mary E. Sweeny and Marian E. Breckenridge. Paper, 46 pages. The Merrill-Palmer School, 71 East Ferry Ave., Detroit 2, Mich.

Discusses the nutritional requirements of preschool children and offers a series of recipes which have been found helpful in a child feeding center.





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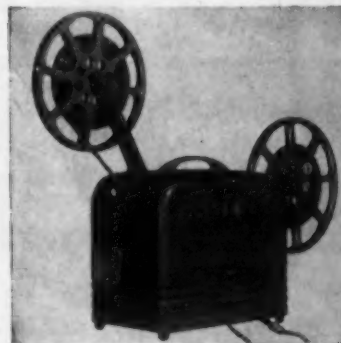
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PERFECT SEAL AND FINISH FOR WOOD FLOORS.

### SEEING IN THE SCHOOLHOUSE

(Concluded from page 32)

defects. But even this aid is not utilized in the school as it should be. Much more attention is devoted to dental hygiene than to eye hygiene in the average educational program. In many school systems the children are taught the proper care of teeth, and in some regular dental care is a part of the program. In few, if any schools, are the children given regular eye examinations, and in none is there any training on the proper use and care of the eyes.

There are many school children who

should be wearing eyeglasses today who do not have them, and neither they nor their teachers nor their parents may know that they need them. There are many other students who have eyeglasses which are no longer suited to correct the defects to which the wearers are subjected. And there are many others who have proper eyeglasses who do not wear them when they should.

The characteristics of what and how the child sees in the classroom are fairly well fixed. While for some of the visually handicapped children improvements in seeing conditions can be made to reduce the correction required, for the vast majority of

cases a given optical prescription will help the students to see better or more comfortably, irrespective of the status of seeing conditions otherwise. Hence, the provision of an adequate eye health service, including eye wear for those who need it, also becomes a primary consideration of those who are concerned with improving seeing conditions in the school.

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Note — Part II of this article will appear in an early issue. — Ed.

### PERSONAL NEWS

- SUPT. H. B. BRUNER, of Oklahoma City, Okla., has been re-elected for the next school year.
- ALTON FAHR has been elected superintendent of schools at Paducah, Tex. He succeeds J. D. Wilson, who has accepted the superintendency at Ballinger.
- SUPT. RICHARD N. ANKETELL, of North Adams, Mass., has been given a salary increase of \$1,000 retroactive to January 1.
- MARK A. McCLOSKEY, director of the Office of Community War Service of the FSA, has returned to his old position as director of adult education for the New York city schools.
- C. B. MUMMART, for 15 years superintendent of schools at Prophetstown, Ill., has resigned to accept a position in the Washington Junior High School at Dubuque, Iowa.



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### TEACHERS DEPEND UPON THE ADMINISTRATION FOR ADEQUATE SALARIES

(Concluded from page 43)

The salary account for these 39 teachers increased from \$116,870 in 1941-42 to \$135,900 in 1944-45, or 16 per cent. The increase averaged \$518 for men and \$459 for women, or \$488 for all. During the three years the wartime situation accounted for quite a turnover in the other staff positions. In the case of new teachers entering teaching for the first time, the beginning salary of \$1,900 marked an increase of \$400 over the previous experience of the board in hiring beginners. In the case of the appointments with experience,

the salary level was about \$500 above that which had prevailed five or six years prior to 1941-42.

**Conclusion.** It is no easy matter for the school administrator to determine proper salary policies in situations such as this. It is even more difficult to push through board meetings the policies that seem just. As one works close to the placement of beginning teachers on their first jobs, it is quite apparent that some school administrators are following lines of least resistance when they should be using the current situation to raise rightfully the salary policies in their schools. In these days of teacher shortages some schools are still following the unsound practice of appointing poor substitutes and untrained teachers with

emergency certificates, rather than to go to the mat with their boards and their communities to give teachers a decent living wage—to get the salary standards necessary to compete with the wages outside the schools.

It is hardly the administrator's place to sit back and ask the board each year how much they would like to spend for salaries. He should be a student of school finance in general and of the local situation in specific. He is the agent for the teachers, and only in so far as he discharges this duty properly may he expect to maintain the staff morale necessary for a good instructional program. In these times of extreme economic pressure, the administrator must fight to secure a salary beachhead that will enable teachers to serve with some personal pride, otherwise the exodus from the profession will grow even more startling.

### NEWS OF SCHOOL OFFICIALS

► The Worcester, Mass., school committee has elected **RAYMOND L. DIVOLL** as business manager and clerk, to succeed **Will A. Gray**, retired. Mr. Divoll's salary has been fixed at \$4,000 minimum, with annual increments of \$250, up to a maximum of \$5,100.

► **JAMES B. McCahey** has been re-elected president of the board of education of Chicago for his thirteenth successive term.

► **HARRY L. CHAMBERLIN**, business manager of the board of education at Lansing, Mich., has resigned, after 22 years of service.

► **REV. H. B. BEGUN** has been elected president of the school board at Colorado Springs, Colo. O. J. MILLER was named vice-president.

► **HARRY G. MILLER** has been re-elected president of the school board at West Allis, Wis. Other officers named were **M. F. BENESCH**, vice-president, and **Miss Leora Klumb**, secretary.

► The school board at Moorhead, Minn., has reorganized with **M. E. BECK** as president; **O. D. HILDE** as secretary; and **F. G. HILL** as treasurer.

► The board of education at Wayne, Mich., has reorganized with the election of **MILFORD N. BROWN** as president; **H. D. LUCAS** as treasurer; and **HORACE PHILLIPS** as secretary. New members of the board are **Horace Phillips** and **HAROLD SLICHER**.

► **BEN C. REES** has been re-elected secretary of the board of education of Laporte, Ind., for a third consecutive term.

► **DR. V. GREGORY ROSEMONT**, of Clarks, Neb., has accepted the superintendency at Tilden.

► **E. E. FARMINTER**, of Sterling, Neb., has taken the superintendency at Shelton.

► **SUPT. GEORGE L. BLACKWELL**, of St. Joseph, Mo., has been re-elected for another year.

► **EUGENE L. JOHNSON**, of Galesburg, Ill., has been elected superintendent of the Monticello community high school.

► **O. F. BARNARD**, of Shannon, Ill., has been elected superintendent of schools at LaFayette.

► **J. MATT SPARKMAN**, of Frankfort, Ky., has accepted the superintendency at Paintsville.

► **HOMER DELONG**, formerly principal of the high school at Antigo, Wis., has been elected superintendent, to succeed **P. A. Tipler**, who has gone to Oshkosh.

► **SUPT. OTTO HUGHES**, of Columbus, Ind., has been re-elected for the next school year.

► **SUPT. LOY W. HARTSFIELD**, of Hillsboro, Tex., has been re-elected as head of the school system and president of the municipal junior college. He has been head of the school system for the past 16 years.

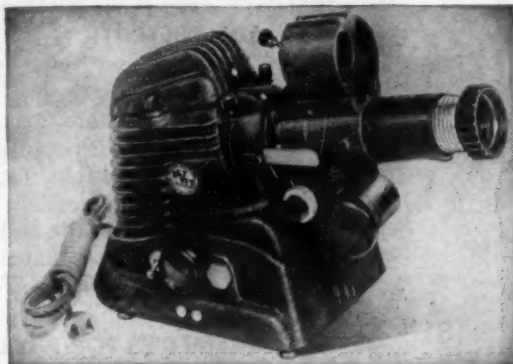
► The school board at Columbus, Ind., has reorganized with **ROY E. GRAHAM** as president; **LEWIS N. EASEX** as secretary; and **JOE E. AVERY** as treasurer.

► The school board at Mt. Vernon, Ind., has reorganized with **ORVAN R. HALL** as president; **IRA V. ROTHROCK** as secretary; and **GEORGE A. ASHWORTH** as treasurer.

► **W. M. LAYMAN**, formerly principal of the high school at Prophetstown, Ill., has accepted the superintendency of the elementary schools.

► **M. JAMES PARSONS**, of Newark, Del., has been elected superintendent of schools at Media, Pa., to succeed **W. H. Michaels**, who is retiring after 25 years of service. Mr. Parsons, a graduate of Washington College, has completed graduate work at the University of Delaware and Wharton School of Finance, and is the holder of a master's degree in education from the University of Pennsylvania.

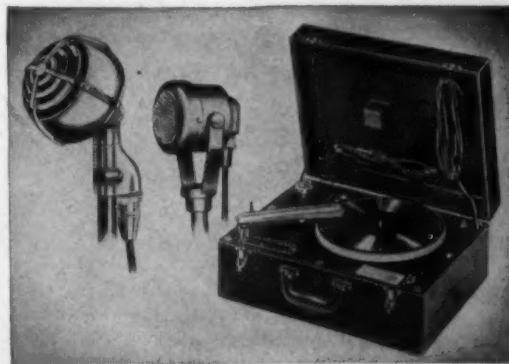




DeVRY Triple-Purpose Slide-film Projector (Left) for (1) 2" x 2" paper and glass slides; (2) for single-frame slide-film; (3) for double-frame slide-film—with motor driven forced-air cooling.

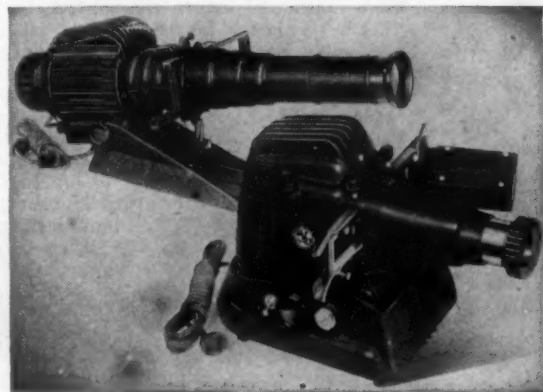
DeVRY High-Impedance Microphones (Right)—either dynamic or crystal—deliver high-quality reproduction. Fit any standard stand.

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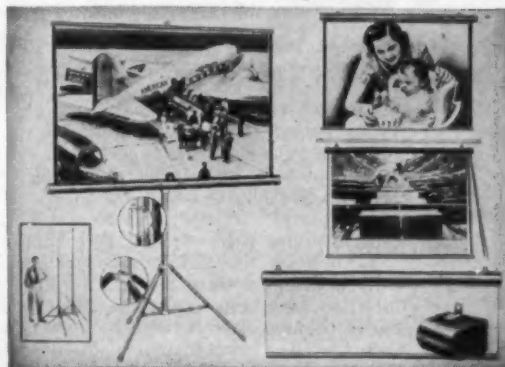


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### THE IRONWOOD MANUAL TRAINING SCHOOL

(Concluded from page 47)

ing veterans is being planned. A considerable adult-education program in the shops has been in operation during the past year and will undoubtedly be increased in future years.

Our whole secondary program — vocational, academic, junior college, high-school — is well centralized under one roof. There is no duplication and no separation of function. The vocational work is accepted as a valid and viable contribution to secondary education. It is not a "poor cousin" or a school for "second-class" citizens.

If the local public schools of this country are to provide the direction of vocational education, they must join the movement rather

than fight it or ignore it. Training of this sort in an adequate way will be furnished by some other government agency if local schools do not meet the need. At Ironwood we hope that we have done our small part in furnishing the type of training wanted. The board of education does not relish the idea of federal or other outside control and has adopted the most practical way of stopping it before it can get a foothold — by doing something to solve the problem on the local level.

### MT. VERNON TEACHERS' SALARIES

(Concluded from page 50)

year when going on to the new schedule. This board voted against that procedure and agreed that in each case the teacher should have the full amount due.

### IDENTITY AND FUNCTION OF ADMINISTRATION

(Concluded from page 20)

and the purpose of both services are identical. The economic rewards are, as a matter of fact, not so different as is popularly supposed. As for social recognition, I can say, after a lifetime in my profession, that I should be most proud if at the end of my service, it could be said of me that throughout my lifetime *I was a TEACHER.*

### DESPERATE REMEDIES FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION

(Concluded from page 18)

secondary grades." Very well, then. My case rested chiefly on typical examples of tactics obstructive to a program of unimpeachable efficiency, by physical education specialists in secondary schools and colleges.

"But," you may well add, "even such proof is unsatisfactory, for it concerns strangers, in remote communities." May I now suggest something more appealing — more constructive?

Then permit me, Sir, to extend to you the same offer often presented — futilely — to various "national leaders" in physical education — a proposal I must call "desperate." Not because the techniques involved are precarious — they are not; but because to adopt them may involve heroic efforts on your part — either to train local teachers to go along with you, or to find and employ teachers who possess the requisite training. It is desperate, also, because the terms of the proposal, amounting to a challenge to experiment partially at my expense, may render my motives suspect. But, Sir, these must be crystal clear if you will recall that, after twenty years of co-operative experimentation and practical application, "PFI-Program men," now serving chiefly in New York and Massachusetts, estimate that their new techniques should eventually do for education what antiseptics did for medicine. And as with those who pioneered in antiseptics, so with "PFI-men" the great problem is to overcome natural inertias — to induce sincere educationists seriously to investigate the evidence. . . . Would you abandon such an effort easily? — which promises so much for all concerned? I don't think you would!

Do you, Sir, then conduct, for one year, in one grade of your high school, and without adding numerically to your present physical education staff, the PFI Program outlined in my second JOURNAL article, taking reasonable care to assure yourself that the program is efficiently pursued. And do you also induce the principals in the schools of Bay, Berea, Clearview, Fairview, Oberlin and Westlake, who co-operated with you in securing draft statistics, to co-operate again by experimenting likewise with PFI Programs.

Then if, at the end of the year, you yourself cannot call your local use of PFI Programs "the most exciting and rewarding experience of my entire professional life," I will undertake to provide traveling expenses for yourself, your superintendent and your entire board of education to visit, say, Syracuse University and then, say, Brookline, Mass., where you all may investigate the programs there operative, and talk with men and women intimately familiar with the Program. Or to provide similar expenses for any one of your co-operating principals, and his board. Can I say fairer than this?

Then, if you — or they — still remain unconvinced of the "eminent propriety" of PFI Programs, I further covenant to foot the bill for your transportation back to Cleveland.

The best available guide to PFI Programs is Major (also Professor and Doctor) H. Harrison Clarke's recently published text "The Application of Measurement to Health and Physical Education," Prentice-Hall, Inc. This program is dramatically epitomized by "The Case of Paul," a recently mimeographed report by Professor Millard Rogers of Syracuse University, available on request to Professor Rogers — no kin to me.





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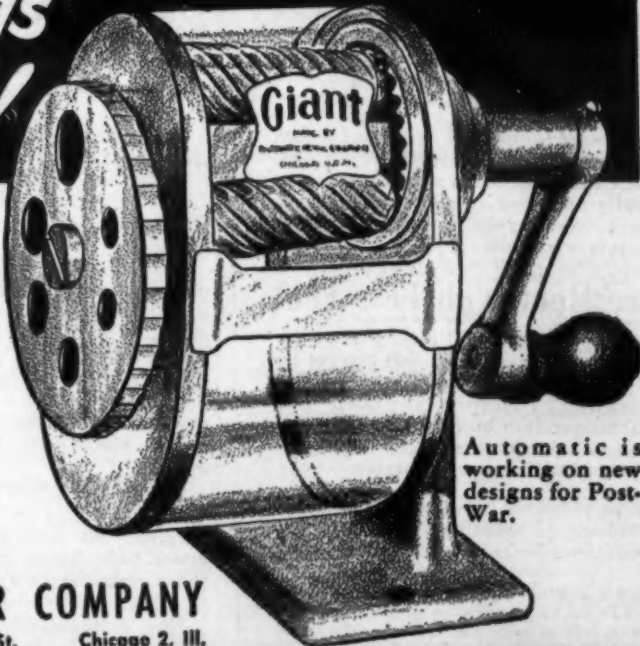
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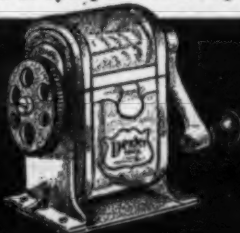
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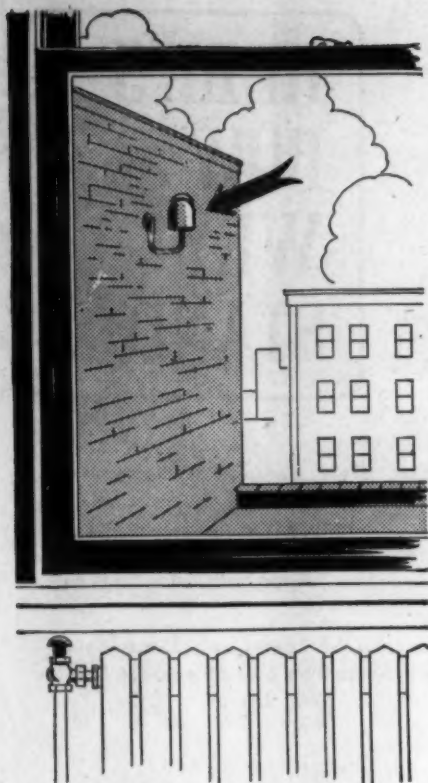
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## School Administration in Action

(Concluded from page 49)

civic instruction by a lay teacher. At the start of the program there was a considerable enrollment in the general assembly, but now this has decreased to less than 1 per cent of the school enrollment.

Due credit is given the clergy and laymen who have given their wholehearted support to the program. The clergymen have stated that it is the finest program they have ever known. At the Dunbar School, the principal has obtained a pastor to speak to the boys and girls in the auditorium each Friday morning.

Though the program is in an experimental stage, there has been little or none of the usual manifestation of delinquency since the program was started. In fact, a checkup of the police blotter shows that there has been a noticeable decrease in the number of juvenile arrests. In the opinion of the school authorities, the religious program will function effectively in any community where the people demand it and have the co-operation of all the local organizations, the church laymen, and the clergy.

### HIGH-LIGHTS HIGH-LIGHTED

The board of education of Pasadena, Calif., has published in the *Pasadena School Review*, which is distributed to all school patrons, a summary of the high lights of school-board action as recorded in the minutes of the board. The 15 items included provide a three-minute overview of the most important administrative departures, additions to school services, and changes in school organization.

The report brings out particularly that the board is actively preparing to handle the re-education of returning veterans. It shows further that a modified single-salary schedule has been adopted, and that a plan for retiring noncertificated employees has been under active consideration. Among the instructional improvements are a plan for released time for religious education. The school-building activities include the sale of unneeded sites, of old buildings, or branches of new sites, and the development of a complete building program.

### MADISON SCHOOL LUNCH PROGRAM

In the five Madison schools from September 1, 1944, to June 1, 1945, a total of 122,386 school lunches were served through the state and federal program.

These were all Type A lunches as prescribed by the federal program. The Federal Government reimbursement amounted to \$13,974.80. The total Illinois state assistance amounted to \$2,960.06. The total cost of the lunches amounted to \$23,307.48.

The Madison schools operated the largest lunch program in Madison County during the past school year. Four of the schools have been equipped with kitchens and dining rooms during the past three years.

Everyone speaks favorably of the school lunch program and seems to be of the opinion that it is one of the best state and federal sponsored programs, which really benefits our boys' and girls' health.

### AN INTERCLASS CONTEST

A program of interclass contests, designed to challenge the interest of boys and girls in the junior high school, was carried out in Sullivan, Ind., under the direction of Dale C. Billman, superintendent of schools.

This program which aimed to interest each student in school encouraged the student to choose one or more activities in which he was interested to help win points for his group. Scholastic attainment, spelling, and student-planned assembly programs were given recognition in the assignment of points to be earned, along with competitive sports—baseball, basketball, volleyball, bicycle races, track, relay races, tumbling—and quiet outdoor and indoor games.

The contests were an original idea of the faculty members of the Sullivan Junior High School and

attracted wide interest among students and school patrons. The plan recognizes the interest that boys and girls of junior high school age have in competitive athletics. It also encourages educational activities by making them more attractive through an intramural program. Minor sports and quiet games were recognized to challenge those who may not have the physical ability and interest to compete in the recognized major sports.

The seventh and eighth grades were represented by a student committee which appointed student sponsors for each event. These students took charge of the program, aided by a teacher sponsor.

### GUIDANCE IN THE SALEM PUBLIC SCHOOLS

The Salem Community High School, in Salem, Ill., has recently developed a very good guidance program which begins in grades seven and eight of the junior high school, where the teachers stress guidance. In addition, the students are permitted to visit the senior high school classes in which they are interested. The visitation which is planned in advance fits into the schedule of both the junior and senior high schools.

In the freshman year of the senior high school, a semester course called "occupational civics" is offered. All freshmen are required to take the course, which is conducted by Ruth M. Brandes, a trained instructor in the field of guidance.

Miss Brandes, in co-operation with Supt. B. E. Gum, has developed a course and methods of work. The course covers aims, material used, units of study, and classroom methods.

A students' handbook is also published, which has a special section devoted to educational guidance, especially the required and recommended subjects for admission to the various undergraduate curriculums in the University. The central office and faculty members put forth special efforts in the field of guidance, and all in all, it is believed that the guidance program is functioning well and is gaining certain desired results.

### FULTON SCHOOL CURRICULUM REORGANIZED

With the completion of a new elementary school, Carr Institute, in 1943, the school board of Fulton, Ky., immediately took steps to reorganize the curriculum in the elementary schools to meet the needs of the children.

Under the new program, achievement tests are given each spring. These tests seek to determine how efficiently the work has been done during the past school year.

In September, 1944, music was introduced in the schools, with the employment of a special teacher. Mixed boys' and girls' choruses were organized which met the approval of the public.

An immunization program has been worked out with the co-operation of the health department, which has proved successful.

In the high school, a new course in aviation and international relations has been introduced. The courses in science and mathematics have been revised to better prepare the students for participation in the war effort.

During the year the administrative department evaluated the work of some boys discharged from the army in terms of high school credits. These credits were applied toward the attainment of a high school diploma.

### LUNCH PROGRAM WILL BE CONTINUED

Regional directors of the U. S. Department of Agriculture's Office of Supply have given assurance that the community school lunch program will be continued during the year 1945-46.

The continuation of federal aid to schools, child-care centers, and children's summer camps through the community school lunch program has been made possible by a federal appropriation of \$50,000,000.

Marked expansion of the number of schools and children participating in the program might force some reduction later in the school year in the federal reimbursements from the present rates. It is desired that as many children as possible shall enjoy the improved nutrition, health, and scholastic gains made possible by the lunch program, and it is planned to spread the funds allotted accordingly.



# Professional Directory

**F. E. BERGER & R. L. KELLEY**  
Architects  
Specializing in  
EDUCATIONAL BUILDINGS  
CHAMPAIGN ILLINOIS

**Brender & Van Reyendam**  
Engineer M. Am. Soc. C.E. and Architect A.I.A.  
School Surveys — Planning — Design  
of School Systems  
Box 712 WAYNE, MICHIGAN

**T. H. BUELL & CO.**  
ARCHITECTS  
BUELL BLDG. DENVER, COLO.

A. C. Eschweiler, F.A.I.A. C. F. Eschweiler, A.I.A.  
A. C. Eschweiler, Jr., A.I.A. T. L. Eschweiler, A.I.A.  
**ESCHWEILER and ESCHWEILER**  
ARCHITECTS  
720 East Mason St., Milwaukee, Wisconsin

**LOUIS H. GERDING**  
ARCHITECT  
STRAWN A. GAY — Associate  
COMPLETE ARCHITECTURAL AND ENGINEERING  
SERVICE FOR EDUCATIONAL BUILDINGS  
708 LaSalle St. Ottawa, Illinois

**JOS. C. GODDEYNE, A.B., B.S.A.E.**  
ARCHITECT  
Complete Personalized Professional Service  
Architectural — Engineering — Mechanical Work  
Bay City Bank Building Bay City, Michigan

**H. L. GOGERTY ORGANIZATION**  
ARCHITECTS — ENGINEERS  
6355 Yucca Street  
HOLLYWOOD 28, CALIF.

**HARRY J. HARMAN**  
ARCHITECT  
A Complete Design and Engineering Service  
220 W. 41st St., Western Springs, Ill. (Chi. Sub.)

**HOMER HARPER, AIA**  
Architect  
Modern Treatment of  
Educational Institutions  
BOX 18 SHORHAM  
ST. JOSEPH, MICHIGAN

**SPECIALIZED SERVICES**  
*Schoolhousing facilities, to properly function in the educational program, require highly specialized architectural services in their design and construction. Errors or omissions in the original design are costly and the expense continues during the life of the school building. A good schoolhouse architect, due to his knowledge of schoolhousing requirements and experience, will effect many economies and provide the essential facilities for each particular project. The first step in every project is the employment of a good schoolhouse architect or the retention of his specialized services as a consultant.*

**WILLIAM G. and  
ROGER M. HERBST, A.I.A.**  
ARCHITECTURAL AND ENGINEERING SERVICE  
Educational Building  
Consultants to School Officials  
1249 N. FRANKLIN PL. MILWAUKEE 2, WIS.

**WM. B. ITTNER, INC.**  
Superior Architectural and  
Engineering Service Rendered  
408 Board of Education Building St. Louis, Mo.

**GILBERT A. JOHNSON**  
Architect for Rockford Board of Education  
1921-1940  
Designed School Buildings costing  
\$3,500,000 in 1939-1940  
Rockford Illinois

**ERNEST J. KUMP COMPANY**  
SCHOOL PLANNING CONSULTANTS  
Architecture — Engineering  
251 KEARNY ST. SAN FRANCISCO 8, CALIF.

Wm. R. McCoy, A.I.A. D. Clarence Wilson  
**McCOY & WILSON**  
ARCHITECTS  
School Buildings A Specialty  
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MT. VERNON ILLINOIS

**McGUIRE & SHOOK**  
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Specialists in Design of Educational Buildings  
Consulting Service to School Officials  
INDIANAPOLIS INDIANA

**RAYMOND A. ORPUT**  
ARCHITECT-ENGINEER  
Suite 620, Empire Building  
School Architect Rockford, Illinois

**PERKINS, WHEELER & WILL**  
ARCHITECTS  
Merchandise Mart, Room 2204 Chicago, Ill.

**BOYD E. PHELPS, INC.**  
ENGINEERS  
Specializing in Design of Modern Educational  
Buildings  
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**C. GODFREY POGGI**  
ARCHITECT  
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**DONALD J. STEWART**  
ARCHITECT  
222 Central Bldg.  
VANCOUVER WASHINGTON

**SCHERMERHORN TEACHERS' AGENCY, Est. 1855**  
CHARLES W. MULFORD, Prop.  
366 Fifth Ave., bet. 34th and 35th Sts., New York  
Branch Office: 1836 Euclid Ave., Cleveland, Ohio  
A Superior Agency for Superior People  
We Register Only Reliable Candidates  
Services Free to School Officials  
Member National Ass'n of Teachers' Agencies  
901 W Jackson Blvd., Chicago 7, Ill., ..

# New Supplies and Equipment

## Production, Service, and Sales News for School Buyers

### SOUTH BEND PRECISION LATHE

Catalog 9-G illustrates in full color and completely describes its line of 9-inch Engine Lathes and Toolroom Lathes. Also shown are their 9-inch Precision Turret Lathes which have  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch collet capacity. These models are well suited for the production of small precision parts, for exacting work, and for general and specialized use in machine, maintenance, repair and laboratory shops for the working of all metals, plastics, and other machinable materials. Lathe tools, accessories, motors and controls, and attachments for special classes of work are illustrated and described in detail. A copy of this 36-page, 11 by 8½-in. catalog 9-G will be mailed to you upon request.

South Bend Lathe Works, 183 E. Madison St., South Bend 22, Ind.

For brief reference use ASBJ-810.

### SPENCER LENS CHANGE

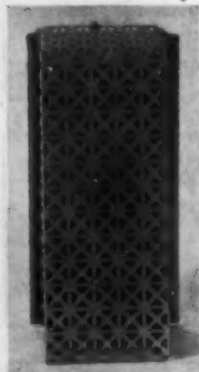
Announcement is made that the Spencer Lens Company has become The American Optical Company, Scientific Instrument Division. In making the announcement, a booklet "Three American Microscope Makers" has been mailed. The booklet tells the story of the early days in scientific instrument manufacture.

American Optical Company, Scientific Instrument Division, Buffalo 11, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-811.

### AIR FRESHENER FOR SCHOOLS

A highly successful air freshener, which has been proved by use in hospitals, offices, hotels, cafeterias, and indoor sports arenas, is now available for schools. The product is known commercially as Airkem Chlorophyll Air Freshener and it is applied by bottles equipped with a special wick for evaporation. One 16-ounce bottle has a zone of influence for a radius of ten feet. In larger areas, such as classrooms or gymnasiums, bottles in multiple are used spaced apart to give



Boy-Proof Container  
for Airkem Bottle for  
Odor Control  
and  
Air Freshness.

the maximum function. These bottles, attractive in themselves, may be masked by a two-bottle cabinet of mahogany or wood with ivory finish. For wash rooms special metal tamper-proof cabinets are provided for the bottles. Airkem was marketed after exhaustive tests were made by Northwestern University and Dr. D. W. Turner, head of the Chemical Engineering Department of Columbia University. As Dr. Turner states in his report, "the action of Airkem in freshening and revitalizing air is due to a combination of several elements. Stale air may be due to one or more of a number of factors, and Airkem is compounded of a number of components to counter these various factors." One of the main ingredients of Airkem is Chlorophyll, the green substance in vegetation which is one of nature's means for freshening air in outdoor places.

W. H. Wheeler, Inc., 234 E. 46th St., New York 17, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-812.

### TYPING TECHNIQUE SOUND FILM

The latest sound film on typewriting technique and typing short cuts is available for distribution. The film was produced under the supervision of Underwood and features the latest facts and information on typewriting technique. Many modern methods of operation, timesaving features of the typewriter and shortcuts in connection with specific typing tasks are given to stimulate and improve the efficiency of typing students. This new sound film is available to high schools, colleges, universities, vocational schools, adult education groups, and other institutions and groups interested in typing. The film is a 16mm. sound film, with running time of 21 minutes.

The Underwood Corporation, One Park Avenue, New York 19, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-813.

### AUTOMATIC PENCIL SHARPENERS

Automatic announces that they will continue to manufacture Giant Dexter #3, Dexter Craftsman, Giant, and Special Draftsman, all with transparent receptacle, until further notice. They advise that the revocation of restraining order L-73 by the War Production Board does not make pencil sharpeners available for general consumers or for dealers stocks. All of the materials are still under WPB control.

Automatic Pencil Sharpener Co., 58 E. Washington St., Chicago 2, Ill.

For brief reference use ASBJ-814.

### LATE FILM RELEASES

#### National Film Board of Canada

An interesting listing of Canadian Government films available in the United States is now available. A wide range of titles are listed among the interesting subjects, such as Agriculture, Education, Social Planning, Sports and War.

Brandon Films, Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York 19, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-815.

### Film Scope Short

The release of the seventeenth edition of the utilization scope chart of the Encyclopaedia Britannica (Erpi) Classroom Films was announced by H. R. Lissack, General Sales Manager. The new format of the publication makes it far more useful as films are grouped under their area and subject matter. Film content is brief but adequate to assist the educator in film selection.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 N. Wacker Dr., Chicago 6, Ill.

For brief reference use ASBJ-816.

### FILMOSOUND LIBRARY

CHIP OFF THE OLD BLOCK (Universal), No. 2561, 8 reels. Clean uproarious comedy with good music and dancing. Available from August 25, 1945, for approved nontheatrical audiences.

WEEK END PASS (Universal), No. 2563, 6 reels. Champion shipyard worker wins bonus and week-end vacation. He yearns for peace and quiet and gets, instead, a mixup with a girl. Available from August 18, 1945, for approved nontheatrical audiences.

Bell & Howell Company, Chicago, Ill.

For brief reference use ASBJ-817.

### The Returning Veteran

March of Time's film "The Returning Veteran" tells of the difficulties which confront all servicemen upon their return to civil life. Our government is determined to avoid the inadequate measures of the last war in restoring the veteran to a

happy and prosperous way of life. The film shows what steps are being taken to help those whose experiences have left them physically or mentally changed, and how they are being restored to a useful place in the community.

### "Let's All Sing Together"

I. T. & T. Corporation announced today the national release of four one-reel film subjects, running for 11 minutes each, entitled "Let's All Sing Together." These films were produced by the National Canadian Film Board. This series, which is of the musical community sing variety, is treated in a humorous cartoonlike manner, and includes some of the well-known all-time favorites. The first film consists of the following song titles, "Old MacDonald Had a Farm," "Home on the Range," "Daisy, Daisy," and "Alouette"; the second reel consists of "Oh, Susanna," "Carry On," "Short'n Bread," and "Pack Up Your Troubles"; the third reel consists of "Put on Your Old Gray Bonnet," "The More We Are Together," "The Daring Young Man on the Flying Trapeze," "Carry On"; the fourth reel consists of "My Wild Irish Rose," "En Rouland Ma Boule," "Clementine," and "I've Got Sixpence."

International Theatrical and Television Corp., 25 W. 45th St., New York 19, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-818.

### University of the Air

"Home Around the World" has been adopted as the theme of the "Home Is What You Make It" summer series. For a period of 13 weeks a dramatic script will be written about one of the nations, stressing home before the war, during the war, and the rebuilding of normal home life. The scripts will be based upon available material and cover many countries. Don Goddard will be the narrator and Joseph Mansfield will be the producer.

### JUDGES FOR AMATEUR MOVIE CONTEST

The executive board of International Theatrical & Television Corporation announced recently the appointment of the first eight members of the board of 11 judges to select the prize winning films in the International Amateur Movie Contest. The first six members of this committee are known Hollywood personalities, whereas the remainder of the group will be leaders chosen from the nontheatrical 16mm. field, in order that the value of the films may be judged from both theatrical and nonprofessional standards. This committee to date consists of Louella Parsons, Hollywood columnist, Jesse Lasky, producer, Veronica Lake, Paramount Picture star, Hal Mohr, Universal cameraman, Bill Meiklejohn, talent and casting director for Paramount Pictures, Mitchell Leisen, director, Norris Harkness, Photograph Editor of the *New York Sun*, and Executive Secretary of the National Photographic Dealers Assoc., and Russell Potter, Director of the Institute of Arts and Sciences of Columbia University. The eleventh judge will be George A. Hirshman, President of I. T. & T. The remainder of the judging committee will be appointed within the next few days from the 16mm. field. This judging body will not only select the first prize winning film which will receive a \$10,000 award, but will also select the additional ten films which will be commercially distributed, and for which the winners will receive a royalty percentage that will be comparable to that given to professional producers throughout the country.

International Theatrical and Television Corp., 25 W. 45th St., New York 19, N. Y.

For brief reference use ASBJ-819.

### HERMAN NELSON RECEIVES FOURTH ARMY-NAVY "E"

The Herman Nelson Corporation, Moline, Ill., manufacturer of heating and ventilating equipment, has received the Army-Navy "E" production award for the fourth time. Robert P. Patterson, Under-Secretary of War, writing to the company and its employees, said that by maintaining the distinguished record which had previously brought them distinction, they are "once again proving leadership on the production front."



## G. T. ROBINSON

G. T. Robinson has become manager of Chicago territory of the J. B. Ford Division of Wyandotte Chemicals Corporation. Mr. Robinson will also be Regional Supervisor of the J. B. Ford sales activities in Milwaukee and Minneapolis territories. Mr. Robinson has a wide acquaintance in the field and will be located in the Wyandotte Chemicals Corporation offices at 435 N. Michigan Avenue, Chicago 11, Ill.

## ALBERT F. WAKEFIELD

Albert F. Wakefield, president of the F. W. Wakefield Brass Company, Vermilion, Ohio, manufacturer of lighting equipment has been elected president of the Illuminating Engineering Society, and will take office October 1.

## STANDARDS FOR COLOR MATERIALS

The U. S. Department of Commerce, National Bureau of Standards has completed, Recommended Commercial Standard T. S. 3961, Subject, Color Materials for Art Education in Schools. "The Standard" was proposed by the Crayon, Water Color and Craft Institute and adjusted in co-operation with other interested organizations. It has the endorsement of the Association of School Business Officials. "The Standard" sets down precise specifications for the allied products, wax and press crayons, water colors, tempera, various blackboard crayons, and modeling clay. As a guide to purchasing agents of the materials, it will prove of value.

## SURPLUS MATERIALS FOR SCHOOLS

The U. S. Department of Commerce has issued a special edition of its *Surplus Reporter*, listing regional offices through which surplus property of the U. S. Government can be purchased. The country has been divided into 11 regions as follows:

Region I—Park Square Building, Boston 16, Mass. (Conn., Me., Mass., N. H., Vt., R. I.)

Region II—61st Floor, Empire State Bldg., New York 1, N. Y. (New York, N. J.)

Region III—1126 21st St., N.W., Washington 25, D. C. (Dist. of Columbia, Del., Pa., Md., Va.)

Region IV—704 Race St., Cincinnati 2, Ohio. (Ind., Ky., Ohio, W. Va.)

Region V—209 LaSalle St., Chicago 4, Ill. (Ill., Mich., N. Dak., S. Dak., Minn., Wis.)

Region VI—105 Pryor St., N.E., Atlanta 3, Ga. (Ala., Fla., Ga., Miss., N. C., S. C., Tenn.)

Region VII—P.O. Box 1407, Fort Worth 1, Tex. (La., Tex., Ark., Okla.)

Region VIII—2605 Walnut St., Kansas City 8, Mo. (Iowa, Kans., Mo., Neb.)

Region IX—1030 15th St., Denver 2, Colo. (N. Mex., Utah, Colo., Wyo.)

Region X—30 Van Ness Ave., San Francisco 2, Calif. (Calif., Ariz., Nev.)

Region XI—2005 Fifth Ave., Seattle 1, Wash. (Ore., Mont., Idaho, Wash.)

## SCHOOL-BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

During the month of June, 1945, Dodge reported that in 37 Eastern States contracts were let for 435 educational buildings to cost \$12,970,000.

In 11 states west of the Rocky Mountains, contracts were let for 4 new school buildings during the month of June, at a cost of \$204,450. A total of 17 additional buildings, to cost \$1,560,870, were reported in preliminary stages.

## SCHOOL-BOND SALES

During the month of June, 1945, school bonds were sold in the amount of \$8,529,400. The largest sales were made in California, \$4,290,000, and in Texas, \$909,000. The average rate of interest was 1.43 per cent. The Bond Buyers Index as of July 7 was 1.40 per cent.

During the month of June, short-term paper and refunding bonds were reported sold, in the amount of \$1,461,000.

## COLOR SLIDES ON SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The American Council on Education, through the co-operation of the Office of Inter-American Affairs, has announced the completion of 33 teaching units of 2 by 2 color slides dealing with the other American republics.

The units are available for purchase from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C.

## Guide to Products and Services

Advertisers in this index are given a code number in addition to the page number on which the advertisement appears. Refer to the advertisement for product or services available. Write direct to advertiser or use the coupon in requesting information from a number of advertisers.

Code No.		Page No.	Code No.		Page No.
800	American Seating Company	8	825	Norton Company	16
801	Ampro Corporation, The	56	826	Norton Door Closer Company	8
802	Automatic Pencil Sharpener Co.	67	827	Page Fence Association	10
803	Bausch & Lomb Optical Co.	61	828	Peabody Company, The	12
804	Bay West Paper Company	62	829	Premier Engraving Company	66
805	Beckley-Cardy Company	65	830	Prentice-Hall Inc.	66
806	Bell and Howell	59	831	Professional Directory	69
807	Berger Mfg. Company	2nd Cover	832	RCA Victor Div. Radio Corp. of America	51
808	Conn, Ltd., C. G.	53	833	Remington Rand, Inc.	5
809	Crane Company	13	834	Rowles Company, E. W. A.	67
810	DeVry Corporation	63	835	Royal Metal Mfg. Co.	4
811	Dudley Lock Corporation	66	836	Schermerhorn Teachers Agency	69
812	General Electric Company	7	837	Sheldon & Company, E. H.	57
813	Grinnell Co., Inc.	14	838	Sloan Valve Company	1
814	Holden Patent Book Cover Co.	65	839	Spencer Turbine Company	54
815	Holmes Projector Company	67	840	Standard Electric Time Co.	12
816	Huntington Laboratories, Inc.	60	841	Superior Coach Corporation	72
817	Johns-Manville Corp.	9	842	Tucker, Duck & Rubber Co.	66
818	Libbey-Owens-Ford Glass Co.	6	843	Universal Bleacher Company	12
819	Medart Mfg. Company, Fred	66	844	Victor Animatograph Corp.	4th Cover
820	Minneapolis-Honeywell Regulator Co.	3rd Cover	845	Vonnegut Hardware Co.	64
821	National Lock Company	10	846	Warren Webster & Co., Inc.	68
822	National Time & Signal Corp.	58	847	Wayne Iron Works	10
823	Nelson Corp., Herman	11	848	Williams Company, The	65
824	Nesbitt, Inc., John J.	2 & 3	849	Wyandotte Chemicals Corporation	55

The advertisements in this issue have been given a code number for your convenience in requesting information on products, services, booklets, and catalogs offered. Encircle the code number of the advertisement in which you are interested, clip and mail the coupon to the AMERICAN SCHOOL BOARD JOURNAL. Your request will receive prompt attention. BRUCE—MILWAUKEE.

## American School Board Journal

540 North Milwaukee St., Milwaukee 1, Wis.

Please send information offered in the advertisements we have encircled.

800 801 802 803 804 805 806 807 808 809 810 811 812 813  
814 815 816 817 818 819 820 821 822 823 824 825 826 827  
828 829 830 831 832 833 834 835 836 837 838 839 840 841  
842 843 844 845 846 847 848 849

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Title ..... School

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### *\*First to Design and Build the All-Steel Safety School Coach*

*(steel reinforced by steel) with extended chassis frame and box-type steel-floor underbody. Thus began the trend from makeshift conversion exemplified by the sketch, to the protective integrated construction so highly developed in Superior's new PIONEER.*



The SUPERIOR  
*Pioneer*  
for 1945

Your choice of school coach equipment today is a more important decision than it ever has been. Heavier, more exacting schedules, the increasing stress on cost accounting and—most important—ever-growing safety requirements, all make it vitally necessary for you to "be sure." You *can* be sure with a Superior All-Steel Safety Coach—"First in the Field."

Superior *performance*, on good roads or bad, level or mountainous, is a matter of record. Superior *value* is being proved every day by over-age equipment still "in harness" on tough wartime runs. And Superior *safety* long has been a byword wherever school buses are operated.

If you have any problem on school coach maintenance, operation or purchasing, ask your Superior distributor, a man who knows pupil transportation. Get him on the phone now and outline your needs.



The Army-Navy "E", symbolizing Superior's Excellence in war production, suggests to every American the opportunity to earn his own "E" for individual Effort: Buy more War Bonds and hold them, donate blood if there is a donor station in your community, save vital materials, write letters to service men, give the best to the job every day.



Superior Coach Corporation, Lima, Ohio

**"first** IN SAFETY-ENGINEERED SCHOOL TRANSPORTATION"